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ON THE LAWS OF ENGLAND.

(PARTLY FOUNDED ON "BLACKSTONE.")

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ON THE

LAWS OF ENGLAND

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HIS HONOUR JUDGE STEPHEN.

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VOL. IV.

LONDON:

BUTTERWORTH & CO., 12, BELL YARD, TEMPLE BAR, W.C.

Law Publishers.

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First	*Edition*	- -	1841—1845.
Second	,,	- - -	1848.
Third	,,	- - -	1853.
Fourth	,,	- - -	1858.
Fifth	,,	- - -	1863.
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Twelfth	,,	- - -	1895.
Thirteenth	,,	- -	1899.
Fourteenth	,,	- - -	1903.

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London : Butterworth & Co., Printers, 2, Crane Court, E.C.

BIBL.
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[Revised by J. A. Simon, Esq.]

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[Revised by Edward Jenks, Esq.]

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[* Note.—The important contributions which have been made in recent years to our knowledge of the history of English Law have thrown a good deal of doubt on some of Blackstone's statements, contained in this chapter. Inasmuch, however, as in the present state of historical criticism, many important questions are still open to doubt, it has been thought better to leave Blackstone's statements substantially unaltered, calling attention in footnotes to some of the more debateable points.—E. J.]

NEW COMMENTARIES

ON

THE LAWS OF ENGLAND.

BOOK VI.

OF CRIMES.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE NATURE OF CRIMES AND THEIR PUNISHMENTS.

We now come to the consideration of Crimes. [And we shall consider, first, the general nature of crimes and of punishments; secondly, the persons capable of committing crimes; thirdly, their several degrees of guilt as principals or accessories; fourthly, the particular species of crimes, with the punishment annexed to each by the laws of England; fifthly, the means of preventing their perpetration; and, sixthly, the methods of criminal procedure, including the mode of inflicting those punishments which the law annexes to crime. And,—

First, as to the General Nature of Crimes and of the Punishments for them.—This discussion will be, in reality, an exposition of the code of criminal law, or (as it used to be denominated in England) the doctrine of the

["*pleas of the crown*," so called because the king, in whom centres the majesty of the whole community, is supposed by the law to be the person injured by every wrong done to that community; and he is therefore, in all cases, the proper prosecutor for every such offence. And this discussion will teach the nature, the extent, and the degrees of every crime, and of the punishments therefor, a matter which is of the utmost importance to every individual in the State; for, as a very great master of the criminal law has observed (*a*), no rank or elevation in life, no uprightness of heart, no prudence or circumspection of conduct, should tempt a man to conclude that he may not at some time or other be deeply and nearly interested in them. And in proportion to the importance of the criminal law, ought also to be the care and attention of the legislature in properly forming and enforcing it. It should be founded on principles that are permanent, uniform, and universal, and that are always conformable to the dictates of truth and justice, to the feelings of humanity, and to the indelible rights of individuals: though sometimes, (provided there be no transgression of these eternal boundaries,) it may be narrowed or enlarged, with reference to local or occasional necessities. And yet, either from a want of attention to these principles in the first concoction of the laws, or from a retention of the discordant political regulations which successive political parties have at different times established, or from giving a lasting efficacy to sanctions designed to be temporary only, and made, (as Lord Bacon expresses it,) merely upon the spur of the occasion, or from too hastily employing means greatly disproportionate to the end, in order to check the progress of some very prevalent offence,—from some or from all of these causes, it hath happened, that the criminal law is, in every country of Europe, more rude and imperfect, in general, than the civil. Even in

(*a*) Sir Michael Foster, pref. to Rep.

[England, where the criminal law is, with justice, supposed to be more nearly advanced to perfection, where crimes are more accurately defined and penalties less uncertain and arbitrary, where all criminal trials take place before the world, where torture is unknown, and every delinquent is judged by his equals against whom he can form no exception, nor even a personal dislike,] the criminal law was long deformed by an unwise and inhuman severity, the amelioration of which will appear as we proceed with our exposition. As instances of the severity referred to, it will be sufficient to mention here, that to break down the mound of a fish pond whereby the fish escaped, or to cut down a cherry-tree in an orchard, were, so late as the eighteenth century, made capital offences (*b*); while the offence of being seen for one month in the company of persons called Egyptians continued to be capital till 1783 (*c*).

In considering the general nature of crimes, we shall consider first, the crime itself; and secondly, the punishment for its commission. And,—

I. First, *The Crime itself.*—A crime is the violation of a public law, when considered with reference to the evil tendency of such violation, as regards the community at large. [The distinction of public wrongs from private, that is to say, of crimes from civil injuries, seems upon examination principally to consist in this, that private wrongs (or civil injuries) are an infringement or privation of the civil rights which belong to individuals, considered

(*b*) 9 Geo. 1 (1722), c. 22, made perpetual by 31 Geo. 2 (1757), c. 42, repealed by 7 & 8 Geo. 4 (1826), c. 27, s. 1. By 7 & 8 Geo. 4 (1826), c 30, ss. 15, 19, the maximum punishment for these offences (provided the injury to the tree exceeded one pound) was seven years' transportation; now, by the Malicious Damage Act, 1861, ss. 19, 20, the maximum is seven and five years penal servitude respectively.

(*c*) "That false and subtil company of vagabonds calling themselves Egyptians," *i.e.*, gypsies (5 Eliz. (1562), c. 20, repealed by 23 Geo. 3 (1783), c. 51).

[merely as individuals, while public wrongs (or crimes and misdemeanors) are a violation of the same rights, considered with reference to their effect on the community in its aggregate capacity. As if I detain a field from another man, to which the law has given him a right, this is a civil injury and not a crime; for here only the right of the individual is concerned, and it is immaterial to the public which of us is in possession of the land. But treason, murder, and robbery, are properly ranked among crimes, since, besides the injury done to individuals, they strike at the very being of society, which cannot possibly subsist, where acts of this sort are suffered to escape with impunity.] In most cases, crime includes an injury; that is to say, most public offences are also private wrongs, or at any rate threaten to involve harm to another individual. But this is not invariably true. Some crimes affect the State alone—*e.g.*, offences under the Foreign Enlistment Act, 1870, or the Official Secrets Act, 1889. In other crimes, the individual directly affected is the criminal himself—*e.g.*, in attempted suicide. But these cases are exceptional; usually a crime is also a tort. [Thus, treason (in imagining the king's death) involves in it conspiracy against an individual, which is also a civil injury; but as this species of treason principally tends in its consequences to the dissolution of government, and the destruction thereby of the order and peace of society, this raises it to a crime of the highest magnitude. Murder is an injury to the life of an individual; but the law of society considers principally the loss which the State sustains by being deprived of a member, and the pernicious example thereby set for others to do the like. Robbery is an injury to *private* property; but were that all, a civil satisfaction in damages might atone for it. It is the *public* mischief of the thing, for the prevention of which our laws have made it a felonious offence. In these gross and atrocious injuries, the private wrong is swallowed up in the public; and that is why we seldom find any mention

[made of satisfaction to the individual in such cases, the satisfaction to the community being so very great.] Where an individual has been civilly injured by a *felonious* act, he can sue the felon after conviction (*d*); but until he has discharged his duty of bringing or endeavouring to bring the felon to justice, the policy of the law may, it seems, suspend his right of redress by action (*e*). [But there are crimes of an inferior nature, in which the public punishment is not so severe; and in these latter cases—*e.g.*, in the case of the crime of battery or of beating another, the aggressor may be indicted at the suit of the crown, and punished by fine and imprisonment for disturbing the public peace; and the party beaten may also have his private remedy, by action of trespass, and recover satisfaction in damages for the injury which he in particular sustains (*f*). And the rule is the same in the case of a public nuisance,—as digging a ditch across a highway,—which is punishable by indictment as a common offence to all the king's subjects; but if any individual sustains any special damage thereby,—as laming his horse, breaking his carriage, or the like,—the offender may be compelled to make ample satisfaction, as well for the private injury as for the public wrong. And we may observe, that in the cognizance which it takes of wrongs, the law has a double view, viz., not only to redress the party injured, by restoring to him his right, or by giving him an equivalent; but also to provide for the benefit of the public, by preventing or punishing every breach or violation of those laws which the sovereign power has thought proper to establish, for the government and tranquility of the State.]

In ordinary language, when we speak of CRIMES, we

(*d*) *S.* v. *S.* (1889), 16 Cox C. C. 566, where the victim of a rape recovered damages.

(*e*) *Wellock* v. *Constantine* (1863), 2 H & C. 146; *Wells* v. *Abrahams* (1872), L. R. 7 Q. B. 554; *Ex parte Ball* (1879), 10 Ch. D. 667.

(*f*) *R.* v. *Mahon* (1836), 4 A. & E. 575; and distinguish *Dyer* v. *Munday*, [1895] 1 Q. B. 742.

understand such only as are subjects of INDICTMENT, a proceeding of which we shall have occasion to speak hereafter; and we do not in general intend those breaches of the law that are punishable merely by a pecuniary penalty, recoverable on summary conviction before one or more justices of the peace, although these latter are doubtless *offences*, and are so called. When the word crime is understood in this more limited sense (namely, in the sense of an *indictable* offence), then crimes consist either of *misdemeanors* or of *felonies*, *misdemeanors* being, properly speaking, crimes, but in common usage denoting such crimes only as amount not to *felonies* (*g*). This distinction makes it necessary for us to define what a *felony* is; and for this purpose, it will be expedient to enter into the matter a little more at large.

[FELONY, in the general acceptation of our English law, comprises every species of crime, which used to occasion, *at common law*, the forfeiture of lands and goods. Treason itself, says Sir Edward Coke, was antiently comprised under the name of felony (*h*); and the Treason Act, 1351, speaking of some dubious crimes, directs a reference to parliament, that it may be there adjudged, "whether they be treason or *other* felony." All treasons, therefore, strictly speaking, are felonies, though all felonies are not treasons. The word *felony* is of feudal origin (*i*); but the derivation of it has puzzled the lexicographers, some deriving it from the Greek φηλος (an impostor or deceiver), others from the Latin *fallo*, *fefelli*, to countenance which they would have called it *fallonia*. Sir E. Coke has given us a still stranger etymology (*k*),—that it is *crimen animo felleo perpetratum* (with a bitter or gallish inclination).

(*g*) *R.* v. *Powell* (1831), 2 B. & Ad. 75; *Ryalls* v. *The Queen* (1848), 11 Q. B. 781; *R.* v. *Thomas* (1875), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 141.

(*h*) 3 Inst. 15.

(*i*) See Gloss. tit. *Felon*.

(*k*) 1 Inst. 391. This, however, is the derivation which Dr. Murray (New English Dictionary, s.v. *Felon*) thinks most probable.

[All writers, however, are agreed in this, namely, that felony is such a crime as used to occasion the forfeiture of the offender's lands and goods: which gives great probability to Sir H. Spelman's Teutonic or German derivation of the word *felony*, which (as being clearly of feudal origin) we ought to look for in the Teutonic or German language, and not among the Greeks or Romans. According to Spelman, *fe-lon* is derived from two northern words,—**fee** (which signifies the fief, feud, or beneficiary estate), and **lon** (which signifies price or value); so that felony (according to this derivation) is the same thing as *pretium feudi*, the consideration for which a man gives up his fief, or such an act as (in common speech) "your life or estate is worth"—in other words, a feudal forfeiture, or act whereby a fief or feudal estate was forfeited to the lord. And in confirmation of this derivation and original meaning of the word, we may observe, that it is in this sense of forfeiture to the lord, that the feudal writers constantly use the word felony; for all those acts, whether of a criminal nature or not, which used to be a cause of forfeiture in the case of feudal donations, and which to this day remain a cause of forfeiture in the case of copyhold estates, are styled *felonia* in the feudal law,—*scil.*, "*per quas feodum amittitur*" (*l*). As "*si domino deservire noluerit*" (*m*); "*si per annum et diem cessaverit in petendâ investiturâ*" (*n*); "*si dominum ejuraverit* (*i.e., negaverit se a domino feudum habere*)" (*o*); "*si a domino, in jus eum vocante, ter citatus non comparuerit*" (*p*),—all these were denominated felonies by the feudal constitutions. So likewise injuries of a more substantial or criminal nature were denominated felonies, that is, forfeitures, such as assaulting or beating the lord (*q*), or violating his wife or daughter, "*si dominum cucurbitaverit, i.e., cum uxore ejus con-*

(*l*) Feud. l. ii. t. 16.
(*m*) *Ibid.* l. i. t. 21.
(*n*) *Ibid.* l. ii. t. 24.
(*o*) *Ibid.* t. 26, s. 3, t. 34.
(*p*) *Ibid.* t. 22.
(*q*) *Ibid.* t. 24, s. 2.

[*cubuerit*" (*r*). And as these contempts and smaller offences were felonies or acts of forfeiture, the greater offences (such as murder and robbery) fell, of course, under the same denomination. Conversely, the lord might be guilty of felony, or forfeit his seigniory, by the same acts as the vassal would have forfeited his feud,—"*si dominus commiserit feloniam, per quam vasallus amitteret feudum si eam commiserit in dominum, feudi proprietatem etiam dominus perdere debet*" (*s*).

Felony and the act of forfeiture to the lord having been thus synonymous terms in the feudal law, we may easily trace the reason why, upon the introduction of that law into England, those crimes which induced such forfeiture of lands, and, by a small deflection from the original sense, such as induced the forfeiture of goods also, were denominated felonies. Thus it was said, that suicide, robbery, and rape were felonies, *i.e.*, the consequence of such crimes was forfeiture ; till, by long use, we began to signify, by the term of felony, the actual crime committed, and not the penal consequence. And hence it is, that capital punishment does by no means enter into the true or primary idea and definition of felony (*t*) ; for felony may be without capital punishment, as in the case of manslaughter or of larceny, and many other offences made felonies by statute. And at a period of our law when

(*r*) Feud. l. i. t. 5.

(*s*) *Ibid.* l. ii. t. 26, 47.

(*t*) And yet, by the common law, the idea of felony was in general associated with that of capital punishment. Blackstone (4 Com. 97) says : — "And therefore, "if a statute makes any new "offence *felony*, the law implies "that it shall be punished with "*death*, viz., by hanging, as well "as with forfeiture, unless the "offender prays the *benefit of* "*clergy*" ; and the Report of the Criminal Code Bill Commission (p. 14) says :—"The distinction "between felony and misde- "meanor was, in early times, "nearly, though not absolutely, "identical with the distinction "between crimes punishable with "death and crimes not so punish- "able ; but the great changes "which have taken place in our "criminal law have made the dis- "tinction nearly, if not alto- "gether, unmeaning."

[punishment by death was more frequent than now, instances are not wanting where an offence was capital, though, (as it worked no forfeiture of land or goods,) it was no *felony;* as, for example, in the case of heresy, by the common law. Again, the punishment at the common law for standing mute without pleading to an indictment was capital, but without any forfeiture; and therefore such standing mute was no felony. In short, the true original criterion of felony was, that it involved a forfeiture; and up to a very recent time, all felonies occasioned, in fact, a forfeiture of the goods and chattels of the offender, and in some cases of his lands also.] But this criterion is not now of much practical service; for, by the Forfeiture Act, 1870, it has been enacted, that, after the passing of that statute, no confession, verdict, inquest, conviction, or judgment of or for any treason or felony or *felo de se* shall (save where the matter proceeds to *outlawry*) cause any forfeiture. Consequently, no serviceable criterion to distinguish between a felony and a misdemeanour on the ground of the difference in their consequences, exists at the present day; and the student must be guided, partly by a consideration of the old consequences of the particular crime, and partly and chiefly by the express provisions of the statutes relating thereto, in order to determine the true quality of the offence.

II. Secondly, *The Punishment for Crime.*—Punishments [are the evils or inconveniences consequent on the commission of a criminal offence; and, in considering punishments, we shall consider (1) the *power*, (2) the *end*, and (3) the *measure* of punishments.

1. As to the POWER of punishment, or the right of the legislator to inflict discretionary penalties for crimes and misdemeanors (*u*). It is clear that the right of punishing crimes against the law of nature, as murder and the like,

(*u*) See Grotius, *De J. B. et P.* l. 2, c. 20; Puff. *L. of Nat. and N.* b. 8, c. 3.

[is, in a state of mere nature, vested in every individual. Wherefore Cain, the first murderer, was justly apprehensive that *whoever* should find him would slay him (*x*). But in a state of society, this right of the individual is transferred to the sovereign power. Thereby men are prevented from being judges in their own causes; and whatever power individuals once had of punishing offences against the law of nature, is now vested in the magistrate alone, who bears the sword of justice by the consent of the whole community. And for offences which are only *mala prohibita* and not *mala in se*, the magistrate is also empowered to inflict the coercive punishments; and that again is by the consent of individuals, who, in forming societies, did either tacitly or expressly invest the sovereign power with a right of making laws, and of enforcing obedience to them when made, by exercising upon their non-observance severities adequate to the evil. The lawfulness, therefore, of punishing criminals is founded upon this principle, that the law by which they suffer was made by their own consent, being part of the original contract into which they entered, when first they engaged in society. And the right of inflicting punishments being so derived from the consent of the individuals constituting a society or civil state, a doubt has been thereby occasioned, as to how far a human legislature can justifiably inflict capital punishment for *positive* offences, *i.e.*, offences against the municipal law only, which are not offences also against the law of nature; since no individual has naturally a power of inflicting death upon himself or others, for actions in themselves indifferent. As regards offences *mala in se*, capital punishment is, or may be, by the immediate *command* of God himself to all mankind; as, in the case of murder, by the precept delivered to Noah, "Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed" (*y*).] But capital punishment for mere *mala*

(*x*) Gen. iv. 14. (*y*) Gen. ix. 6.

prohibita (supposing it to be lawful at all) is a sanction which should never be resorted to, by the legislature, without the utmost circumspection ; and [it may be safely laid down, that it is the enormity or dangerous tendency of the crime, which alone can warrant the death sentence. For to shed the blood of our fellow creatures, is a matter that requires the greatest deliberation, if it is to be justified at all.

2. As to the END or final cause of punishment. This is not by way of atonement or expiation for the crime committed ; for that must be left to the just determination of the Supreme Being. It is rather by way of precaution against the commission of future offences of the same kind. The object of punishment may be either, the amendment of the offender himself, for which purpose all corporal punishment, fines, and temporary exile or imprisonment are inflicted ; or the deterring of others, by the dread of his example, from offending in the same way, —"*ut pœna ad paucos, metus ad omnes perveniat*" (z) : or else the depriving of the party injuring of the power to do future mischief, which is effected by putting him to death, or condemning him to perpetual confinement. The same one end, of preventing the commission of future crimes, is endeavoured to be answered by each and all of these three modes of punishment. The public gains equal security, whether the offender himself be amended by wholesome correction, or whether he be disabled from doing any future harm ; and if the penalty fails of both these effects, still the terror of his example remains as a warning to other citizens. The method, however, of inflicting punishment ought always to be proportioned to the particular purpose it was meant to serve, and ought never to exceed it. Therefore the pains of death, and of perpetual imprisonment, ought never to be inflicted but where the offender appears incorrigible ;

(z) Cic. *Pro Cluentio*, 592.

[which may be collected, either from a repetition of minuter offences, or from the perpetration of some one crime of deep malignity, which of itself demonstrates a disposition without hope or probability of amendment. In such a case, it would be cruelty to the public to defer the punishment of such a criminal, till he had an opportunity of repeating perhaps one of the worst of his villanies.

3. As to the MEASURE of human punishments.—From what has been already observed, we may collect, that the quantity of punishment can never be absolutely determined by any invariable rule, but must be left to the arbitration of the legislature ; who (it is to be hoped) will enact such penalties only as are warranted by the laws of nature and of society, and such as appear best calculated to answer the true end of punishment. Hence it will be evident, that what some have so highly extolled for its equity, the *lex talionis*, (or law of retaliation,) can never be, in all cases, an adequate or permanent rule of punishment. In some instances, indeed, it seems to be dictated by natural reason ; as in the case of conspiracies to do an injury, or false accusations of the innocent (*a*). To which we may add the the law of the Jews and Egyptians, mentioned by Josephus and Diodorus Siculus, that whoever, without sufficient cause, was found with any mortal poison in his possession, should himself be obliged to drink it. But in general, the difference of persons, place, provocation, or other circumstance, may enhance or mitigate the offence ; and in such cases, retaliation can never be a proper measure of justice, for sometimes it will be more than a just compensation, and sometimes it will be too easy a sentence. Therefore the law of the Locrians, which demanded an eye for an eye, judiciously provided (by way of exception to this law and in imitation of Solon's laws), that he who struck out the eye of a one-

(*a*) Pott. *Antiq.* b. 1, c. 26.

[eyed man, should lose both his own in return (*b*). And besides, there are very many crimes that will in no shape admit of these penalties, without manifest absurdity and wickedness,—*e.g.*, theft cannot be punished by theft, defamation by defamation, or forgery by forgery. We may add, that those instances wherein retaliation appears to be used, even by the divine authority, do not really proceed upon the rule of exact retribution, by doing to the criminal the same hurt he has done to his neighbour, and no more ; but the correspondence between the crime and the punishment, is a consequence of some other principle. Murder is punished with death, as the appropriate manner of visiting an offence of the highest enormity, but not as an equivalent,—for that would be expiation, and not punishment ; and death is not an equivalent for death in all cases, the execution of a needy and decrepit or loathsome murderer being but a poor satisfaction for the loss of a man in the bloom of his youth, and in the full enjoyment of his friends, his honours, and his fortune. But the reason on which the death sentence is grounded seems to be, that this is the highest penalty which the law can inflict, and is the punishment which tends most to the security of mankind, by removing one murderer from the earth, and by setting an example to deter others. So that even this grand instance proceeds upon other principles than those of retaliation.

But as regards particular offences, general principles of a more or less tangible character aid the legislature in allotting to these crimes their adequate punishments. For, first, with regard to the object of the crime (that is, the person against whom it is attempted or committed), it is apparent that the greater and more exalted the object, the more care should be taken to prevent any recurrence of the injury ; and of course, therefore, the

(*b*) *Ibid.*

[punishment should be more severe. And so treason, even in conspiring the death of the king, is made punishable with death; for though an attempt to commit an offence, is, in general, less severely punished than its actual perpetration, yet, in the case of a treasonable conspiracy, the object whereof is the king, the bare intention, where there is any overt act (that is, anything in the conduct of the parties to prove that it was entertained by them), deserves, and is treated with, the highest degree of severity. For the maxim in such cases is *voluntas reputatur pro facto;* which means not simply that the intention is equivalent to the act itself, but that the greatest rigour is (in such a case) no more than adequate to a treasonable purpose of the heart. And, secondly, with regard to the circumstances generally, the violence of passion or of temptation may sometimes alleviate the crime. Theft committed through hunger is more worthy of compassion than when committed through avarice; and to kill a man, upon a sudden and violent resentment, is less penal than to kill him from cool deliberate malice. So, generally, the age, education, and character of the offender; the repetition (or otherwise) of the offence; the time, the place, the company wherein it was committed—all these, and a thousand other incidents, may aggravate or extenuate the crime, and may well be borne in mind in the punishment thereof.

Further, it is but reasonable, that, among crimes of different natures, those should be most severely punished which are the most destructive of the public safety and happiness (*c*). Wherefore, among crimes of equal malignity, those which a man has the most frequent opportunities of committing, or which cannot be guarded against so easily as others,—and which, therefore, the offender has the strongest inducement to commit,—ought

(*c*) Beccar. c. 6.

[to receive the severer punishment; for, as Cicero observes, "*ea sunt animadvertenda peccata maximè, quæ difficillimè "prævarentur*" (*d*). In the Isle of Man this rule was formerly carried so far, that to take away an ox or an ass was there no felony, but merely a trespass, because of the difficulty, in that little territory, of concealing the animal; but to steal a pig or a fowl was a capital offence, punishable with death (*e*).

Lastly, we may observe, that punishments of unreasonable severity, especially when indiscriminately inflicted, have less effect in preventing crimes than such as are more merciful in general, yet properly intermixed with due distinctions of severity. It is the sentiment of an ingenious writer, who seems to have well studied the springs of human action, that crimes are more effectually prevented by the *certainty* than by the *severity* of punishment (*f*). The excessive severity of laws, says Montesquieu (*g*), hinders their execution, and when the punishment surpasses all measure, the public will frequently, out of humanity, prefer impunity to it. The same truth is expressed in the statute 1 Mary (1553), c. 1, sess. 1, which recites in its preamble, "that the state of every "king consists more assuredly in the love of the subject "towards their prince, than in the dread of laws made "with rigorous pains, and that laws made for the preser-"vation of the commonwealth, without great penalties, "are more often obeyed and kept than laws made with "extreme punishments." We may further observe, that sanguinary laws are a symptom of the distemper of a state, or at least of its weak constitution. A multitude of sanguinary laws prove a manifest defect either of wisdom in the legislature or of strength in the executive power. For it is a sort of quackery in government, and argues a

(*d*) *Pro Sexto Roscio*, 40.
(*e*) 4 Inst. 285.
(*f*) Beccar. c. 7.
(*g*) *Spirit of Laws*, b. 6, c. 13.

[great want of political insight and skill, to apply the same universal remedy, the *ultimum supplicium*, to every case of difficulty; that being rather to extirpate than to amend mankind. It may be, and doubtless it is, impossible and romantic, to frame a scale of crimes, as Beccaria proposed, with a corresponding scale of punishments, descending from the greatest to the least (*h*); nevertheless, a wise legislature will not assign penalties of the first degree to offences of an inferior rank.]

(*h*) Beccar. c. 6.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE PERSONS CAPABLE OF COMMITTING CRIMES.

[We have next to inquire what persons are or are not *capable* of committing crimes, the general rule being, that no person shall be excused from punishment for disobedience to the criminal law, excepting such as are, by the law itself, expressly exempted from punishment.

All the various pleas and excuses which the law regards as sufficient to protect the offender, may be reduced to this single consideration,—a want or defect of *will*. A purely involuntary act, as it has no merit, so neither has it any guilt; the concurrence of the will being the one thing which renders human actions either praiseworthy or blameable. Indeed, to make a complete crime, cognizable by the law, there must be a will as well as an act. For though, *in foro conscientiæ*, a fixed design or will to do an unlawful act is almost as heinous as the commission of it; yet in general, and except in the rare case in which the party confesses such a design, no human tribunal has any means of discovering its existence, where it has not been carried into external action. It is impossible, besides, to say that conscience might not have recovered its power in time to prevent the actual commission of the crime; for which reasons, an *overt* act (or some open evidence of the intended crime) is necessary, in order to demonstrate the depravity of the will. And as a vicious will, without a vicious act, is no crime, so an unwarrantable act without a vicious will

[is no crime either (*a*). For, to constitute a crime against human laws, there must be, first, a vicious will, and, secondly, an unlawful act.

Now, there are three cases in which the will does not join with the act.—I. Where there is a defect of understanding. For where there is no discernment, there is no choice; and where there is no choice, there is no true act of the will. He therefore that has no understanding can have no true will to guide his conduct. II. Where, although there is both understanding and will, neither is called forth or exerted at the time of the act done, as in the case of an offence arising by misadventure, accident, or chance; for in such a case the will sits neuter, and neither concurs with the act nor disagrees with it. III. Where the act is constrained by outward force or violence; in which case, the will, so far from concurring with, loathes and rebels against, the act which the man is compelled to do. We must therefore consider the various defects of will which range themselves under these three groups of cases,—infancy and idiocy or lunacy falling under the first class, misfortune and ignorance under the second, and compulsion or necessity under the third.

I. *Infants.*—Non-age or *infancy* is a defect of the understanding; and infants, under the age of discernment, ought not to be punished by any criminal prosecution whatever. What the age of discernment (or, as it is more usually called, discretion) is, has been variously determined by various nations. The civil law distinguished the age of minors, or those under twenty-five years old, into three stages: *infantia*, from birth till seven years of

(*a*) [This assertion can hardly be maintained, unless a very strained interpretation is put upon the expression "vicious will." *E.g.*, a man who violates a statute against storing gunpowder, being entirely ignorant of the existence of the prohibition, is undoubtedly guilty of a "crime." Yet it would be difficult to say that he had a "vicious will."—E. J.]

[age ; *pueritia*, from seven to fourteen ; and *pubertas*, from fourteen upwards. And it subdivided *pueritia* (or childhood) again into two equal parts ; from seven to ten and a half, *ætas infantiæ proxima*, and from ten and a half to fourteen, *ætas pubertati proxima*. During the stage of infancy, and the next half-stage of childhood, *infantiæ proxima*, minors were not punishable for any crime. During the other half-stage of childhood, approaching to puberty, from ten and a half to fourteen, they were indeed punishable, if found to be *doli capaces*, or capable of mischief, but with many mitigations, and not with the utmost rigour of the law ; while during the last stage, (of the age of puberty, and afterwards,) minors were liable to be punished, as well capitally as otherwise (*b*). As regards the law of England, it does, in some cases, privilege an infant under the age of twenty-one, and particularly in cases of omission, as in not repairing a bridge or a highway, or other similar offences (*c*) ; for, not having the command of his fortune till twenty-one, he wants the capacity to do those things which the law requires. But where there is any notorious breach of the peace, as a riot, a battery, or the like (which infants, when full grown, are at least as able as others to commit), for these an infant above the age of fourteen is, by our law, equally liable to punishment, as a person of the full age of twenty-one.

But with regard to the more heinous crimes, the English law is still more circumspect, and distinguishes with greater nicety the several degrees of age and discretion. By the antient Saxon law, the age of twelve years was established as the age of possible discretion, when first the understanding might open (*d*) ; and under twelve, it was held that an infant could not be guilty,

(*b*) Dig. 29, 5, 14 ; 50, 17, 111 ; 47, 2, 23.

(*c*) 1 Hale, P. C. 20, 21, 22.

(*d*) Wilk. *Leg. Ang.-Sax.* LL. Athelstan, p. 65.

[neither after fourteen could he be supposed innocent, of any capital crime which he in fact committed. But by the law, as it now stands, and has stood at least since the time of Edward the Third, the capacity of doing ill, or contracting guilt, is not so much measured by years and days, as by the strength of the delinquent's understanding and judgment. For one lad at eleven years old may have as much cunning as another at fourteen ; and in these cases, our maxim is that "*malitia supplet ætatem.*" Under seven years of age, indeed, an infant cannot be guilty of any felony (*e*) ; for then a criminal discernment or discretion is almost an impossibility in nature. But above seven and under fourteen, though an infant shall be *primâ facie* adjudged to be *doli incapax* (*f*), yet if it appear to the court and jury that he was *doli capax*, and could discern between good and evil, he may be convicted, and (in case of murder) be sentenced to suffer death. Thus, besides more antient examples, there was an instance where a boy of eight years old was tried in the seventeenth century at Abingdon for firing two barns, an offence at that time capital ; and, it appearing that he had malice, cunning, and revenge, he was found guilty, condemned, and hanged accordingly (*g*). Thus, also, in still later times, a boy of ten years old was convicted on his own confession of murdering his bedfellow, there appearing in his whole behaviour plain tokens of a mischievous discretion ; and, as the sparing of this boy merely on account of his tender years might have been of dangerous consequence to the public, by propagating a notion that children might commit such atrocious crimes with impunity, it was unanimously agreed by all the judges, that he was a proper subject of capital punishment (*h*).

(*e*) Mirror, c. 4, s. 16 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 27 ; Dalt. Just. c. 147 ; *Marsh* v. *Loader* (1863), 14 C. B. (N. S.) 535 ; cf. s. 10 (5) of the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879.

(*f*) *R.* v. *Owen* (1830), 4 Car. & P. 236.

(*g*) Emlyn on 1 Hale, P. C. 23.

(*h*) Foster, 72.

[But, in all such cases, the evidence of that malice, which is to supply age, ought to be strong and clear beyond all doubt and contradiction ;] nor will such malice suffice to supply the want of age, in the case of a boy under fourteen years of age who is accused of rape, for the law presumes him incapable of committing it.

Once an infant has attained fourteen, he is presumably *doli capax*, and has no privilege by reason of his non-age, except in cases of omission and the like, as already noticed. And at twenty-one, when infancy ceases, no privilege whatever in respect of age is recognized by the English law.

[*Idiots* and *lunatics* are also excused, for defect of understanding ; the rule of law being, that "*furiosus furore solum punitur*." In criminal cases, therefore, idiots and lunatics are not chargeable for their own acts, if committed when under these incapacities, no, not even for treason itself (*i*). Also, by the common law, if a man in his sound memory commits a capital offence, and, before arraignment, becomes mad, he ought not to be arraigned for it, because he is not able to plead with that advice and caution that he ought ; and if, after he has pleaded, the prisoner becomes mad, he shall not be tried, for how can he make his defence ? And if, after he be tried and found guilty, he loses his senses before judgment, judgment shall not be pronounced ; and if, after judgment, he becomes of non-sane memory, execution shall be stayed, for, peradventure, says the humanity of the English law, had the prisoner been of sound memory, he might have alleged something in stay of judgment or of execution (*k*).] And special provisions, of the same tendency, are now made by statute ; for by the Criminal Lunatics Act, 1800, as amended by the Trial of Lunatics Act, 1883, where anyone, charged with an offence, appears to be insane when brought up to be discharged for want of prosecution, the

(*i*) 3 Inst. 6.

(*k*) 1 Hale, P. C. 34.

court may order a jury to be impanelled to try the sanity ; and, if they find him insane, may order him to be kept in custody till the pleasure of the crown be known. And when any one indicted for an offence appears to be insane, the court may (on his arraignment) order a jury to be impanelled to try his sanity ; and if they find him insane, may order the finding to be recorded, and the insane person to be kept in like manner. Until the year 1883, where a plea of insanity at the time of the commission of the offence was successfully set up at the trial, the jury returned a verdict of "not guilty on the ground of insanity." But the Trial of Lunatics Act, 1883, substituted for this a verdict of "guilty but insane" ; and thereupon the court orders the accused to be kept in custody as a criminal lunatic, till the crown's pleasure be known. Moreover, by the Criminal Lunatics Act, 1884, if any person confined in prison under any charge or sentence (whether of death or of lighter degree) shall appear to be insane, and that fact be duly certified in the manner provided in the Act, a Secretary of State may, if he thinks fit, by warrant direct such prisoner to be removed to an asylum named in the warrant, where he will be detained until he ceases to be a criminal lunatic.

[It is true that in the bloody reign of Henry the Eighth, a statute was made, which enacted, that if a person, being *compos mentis*, should commit high treason, and after fall into madness, he might be tried in his absence, and should suffer death, as if he were of perfect memory (*l*) ; but this inhuman law was repealed by the 1 & 2 Ph. & M. (1554), c. 10. For, as is observed by Sir Edw. Coke (*m*), "the execution of an offender is by way of "example, *ut pœna ad paucos, metus ad omnes perveniat ;* "but the execution of a madman would be of no good "example, but a miserable spectacle, and of a tendency to "encourage the sentiment of cruelty."]

(*l*) 33 Hen. 8 (1541), c. 20. (*m*) 3 Inst. 6.

It is not, however, every kind of degree of insanity that will exempt a man from responsibility ; for, in general, a partial unsoundness of mind will be no excuse. "It is "very difficult indeed," as Lord Hale observes, "to "define the invisible line that divides perfect from partial "insanity ; but the matter must be duly considered "both by the judge and by the jury, lest there be on the "one side a kind of inhumanity towards the defects of "human nature, or on the other side too great an indulgence "given to great crimes." The line of distinction, referred to by Hale, has been drawn in different ways at different times (*n*). The modern criterion was settled in 1843, in *M'Naghten's Case*, when the judges (in answer to certain questions put to them by the House of Lords) gave it as their opinion, that if a man who takes another's life appears to have known at the time that he was acting contrary to law, his insane delusion that he was thereby redressing some supposed grievance or producing some public benefit, will not exempt him from the guilt of murder. Neither will he be exempted by being under an insane delusion as to *facts*, provided the supposed facts, if real, would not have justified the act ; but, on the other hand, he will be exempted by such delusion as last mentioned, where the facts, if real, would have justified the act.

[As regards *drunkenness* or intoxication, though it deprives men of their reason, and occasions in them an artificial madness or phrenzy, while it lasts, yet being wilful, our law looks upon it as an aggravation of the offence, rather than as an excuse for any criminal misbehaviour. "A drunkard," said Sir Edward Coke, "who is *voluntarius* "*dæmon*, hath no privilege thereby ; but what hurt or "ill soever he doth, his drunkenness doth aggravate it : "*nam omne crimen ebrietas et incendit et detegit*" (*o*).

(*n*) See *Arnold's Case* (1724), 16 St. Tri. 695 ; *Offord's Case* (1831), 5 Car. & P. 168 ; *Oxford's Case* (1840), 9 Car. & P. 525 ; *M'Naghten's Case* (1843), 10 Cl. & Fin. 200 ; 4 St. Tri. (N.S.) 847.

(*o*) 1 Inst. 247.

[The Roman law, indeed, made great allowances for this vice, —"*per vinum lapsis capitalis pœna remittitur*" (*p*); but the law of England, considering how easy it is to counterfeit this excuse, and how weak and unworthy an excuse it is, will not suffer any man thus to privilege one crime by another (*q*).] For by our law it is an offence of itself to be found drunk in any public place; and habitual drunkards, who have been four times convicted of drunkenness within twelve months, or who have been convicted of any serious offence while in drink, may be sent for three years to an *inebriate* reformatory (*r*). But while drunkenness is no excuse for crime, it may be an element for the consideration of the jury where the question of deliberate intention enters into the crime (*s*).

[II. *As regards crimes by misadventure, misfortune, or chance.*—Here the will observes a total neutrality, and does not co-operate with the act, which therefore wants one main ingredient of crime. Therefore, if any accidental mischief follows from the performance, with due caution, of a *lawful* act, the party stands excused from guilt (*t*);] but if in doing something *unlawful*, (at least if it be *malum in se*, and not merely *malum prohibitum*,) or in doing, without due caution, anything lawful, one man produces an injurious result to another which he did not foresee or intend, his mere want of foresight is no excuse, but he is criminally guilty of whatever consequence may follow. But where through [*ignorance* or *mistake*, a man, intending to do a lawful act, does that which is unlawful, here the deed and the will acting separately, there is not that conjunction between them which is necessary to form a criminal act. All this, however, must be understood of ignorance or mistake in fact, and not of ignorance or

(*p*) Dig. 49, 16, 6.

(*q*) *Beverley's Case* (1603), 4 Rep. 123; Plowd. 19; *R.* v. *Carroll* (1835), 7 Car. & P. 145.

(*r*) Inebriates Act, 1898.

(*s*) *R.* v. *Monkhouse* (1849), 4 Cox C. C. 55.

(*t*) 1 East P. C. c. 5, s. 36.

[mistake in law. Thus, if a man, in resisting a burglar in his own house, by mistake kills one of his own family, this is no criminal act (*u*) ; but if he think he has a right to kill a person outlawed wherever he shall meet him, and does so, this is wilful murder. For a mistake in point of law (which every person of discretion not only may, but is bound and presumed to know) is in criminal cases no defence,—"*Ignorantia juris, quod quisque tenetur scire, neminem excusat*" (*x*). This is the maxim of our own law as it was also of the Roman law (*y*) ; and the maxim, in its application to criminal offences, admits of no exception, not even in the case of a foreigner temporarily in England, although such a foreigner cannot reasonably be supposed in fact to know the English law (*z*).

III. *As regards crimes committed under compulsion of inevitable necessity.*—In these cases, there is a constraint upon the will, whereby a man is urged to do that which his judgment disapproves, and which, it is to be presumed, his will (if left to itself) would reject. And, as punishments are only inflicted for the abuse of that free will which God hath given to man, it is reasonable that a man should be excused for those acts which are done through unavoidable force and compulsion. Of this nature, in the first place, is the obligation of *civil subjection.* For obedience to the laws in being is a sufficient extenuation or justification before the municipal tribunal ; *e.g.*, the sheriff who burnt Latimer and Ridley in the days of Queen Mary, was not liable to punishment from Elizabeth, for executing his lawful office, but was justified by the commands of that magistracy, which was the sovereign power for the time being. But as regards persons in private relations, the constraint of a superior is seldom

(*u*) 1 Hale, P. C. 42.

(*x*) *R.* v. *Bailey* (1800), Russ. & R. 1.

(*y*) Dig. 22, 6, 9 ; Plowd. 343 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 42.

(*z*) *R.* v. *Esop* (1836), 7 Car. & P. 456.

[allowed as an excuse for criminal misconduct, the principal case in which such an excuse is allowed (and then only in a limited class of instances) being that of the matrimonial subjection of the wife to her husband. For, though neither a son, nor a servant, are excused for the commission of any offence by the command or coercion of the parent or master (*a*), unless it amount to actual physical compulsion, yet, in some cases, the command or authority of her husband, either express or implied, will privilege a wife from punishment, even for heinous crimes. Thus, if a woman commit theft, burglary, or other offence against the laws of society, in the presence of her husband, the law presumes that she acted under his immediate coercion, and she is not held to be guilty of the crime, being considered as acting by compulsion and not of her own will (*b*),—a doctrine which is at least a thousand years old in this kingdom, being found among the laws of King Ina, the West Saxon (*c*). And it appears, that among the northern nations on the Continent, this privilege extended to any woman transgressing in concert with a man, and to any slave that committed a joint offence with a freeman, the male or freeman only being punished, and the female or slave discharged,—"*proculdubio quod alterum libertas, alterum necessitas, impelleret*" (*d*). But the expediency of maintaining the rule has from time to time been questioned (*e*); and the rule, even with regard to wives, was never applicable to such offences as murder, manslaughter, and the like, these being of too deep a dye to be thus excused (*f*). In treason, also, no plea of coverture shall

(*a*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 1, s. 14; 1 Hale, P. C. 44, 516.

(*b*) *R.* v. *Price* (1837), 8 Car. & P. 19; *R.* v. *Wardroper* (1860), 29 L. J. M. C. 116.

(*c*) Cap. 57; Wilk. 29.

(*d*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 2, c. 4.

(*e*) Report of the Criminal Code Bill Commission, p. 18.

(*f*) 1 Hale, P. C. 45, 47, 48, 516; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 1, s. 11; *R.* v. *Manning* (1849), 2 Car. & K. 903 *n.*

[excuse the wife, no presumption of her husband's coercion shall extenuate her guilt (*g*) ; and this, as well because of the odiousness and dangerous consequence of the crime of treason itself, as because the husband, having broken through the most sacred tie of social community by rebellion against the state, has no right to that obedience from his wife, which he himself, as a subject, has forgotten to pay. In misdemeanors, also, a wife may, as a general rule, be indicted *with* her husband ; *e.g.*, for keeping a brothel, which is an offence touching the domestic economy or government of the house, in which the wife has a principal share. Indeed, this particular offence is one which is generally conducted through the intrigues of the baser specimens of womankind (*h*) ; as is distinctly recognized also in the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885. And in all cases where the wife offends alone, without the company or coercion of her husband, she is responsible for her offence as much as any *feme sole* (*i*).

Another species of compulsion or necessity is what our law calls *duress per minas ;* that is, threats and menaces, which induce a fear of present death or of other grievous bodily harm, and which take away the guilt of many crimes and misdemeanors (*k*). Thus, in time of war or rebellion, a man may be justified in doing many treasonable acts by compulsion, which would admit of no excuse in time of peace (*l*). Duress *per minas* is not, however, an excuse in every case. For though a man be desperately assaulted and threatened with death, and cannot otherwise escape than by consenting to kill an innocent person then present, this will not acquit him of murder if he commits the act ; for he ought rather to die himself than kill an innocent person (*m*). But in such a case, he may kill the

(*g*) 1 Hale, P. C. 47.

(*h*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 1, s. 12.

(*i*) *R.* v. *Morris* (1814), Russ. & R. 270.

(*k*) Fost. 14, 216 ; *R.* v. *Tyler* (1838), 8 Car. & P. 616.

(*l*) 1 Hale, P. C. 51.

(*m*) Hale, *ubi sup.*

[assailant; for there the law of nature, and self-defence its primary canon, have made him his own protector.] It is to be observed, too, that, even in the rare cases in which compulsion takes away guilt, the compulsion must be the fear of no less than present death or grievous bodily harm (*n*). For the mere apprehension of having houses burnt or goods spoiled, is not sufficient (*o*); and the fear must also be a just and well-grounded fear—"*qui cadere possit in virum constantem, non timidum et meticulosum*," as Bracton expresses it, in the words of the civil law (*p*).

[There is a third species of necessity, which may be distinguished from the actual compulsion of external force or fear, being the result of reason and reflection, which act upon and constrain a man's will, and oblige him to do an action, which, without such obligation, would be criminal; and this is, when a man has a choice of two evils set before him, and, being under a necessity of choosing one, he chooses the less pernicious of the two. Here the will cannot be said freely to exert itself, being rather passive than active; or, if active, it is rather in rejecting the greater evil than in choosing the less. Of this sort is that necessity where a man is required by the law to arrest another, or to disperse a riot; in which case, if resistance be made to his authority, he may beat, or wound, perhaps even kill, the offenders, rather than permit their escape, or the riot to continue (*q*). And there is also another case of necessity, which has occasioned great speculation, viz. whether a man in extreme want of food or clothing may justify stealing, to relieve his present necessities? And this both Grotius and Puffendorf, together with many other foreign jurists, hold in the affimative, maintaining, by many ingenious, humane, and plausible reasons, that in such cases the community of goods, by a kind of tacit

(*n*) Bract. l. 3, tr. 1, c. 4; Co. Litt. 162 a, 253 b; 2 Inst. 483.
(*o*) Bract. *ubi sup.*
(*p*) Dig. 4, 2, 5, 6.
(*q*) 1 Hale, P. C. 51.

[concession of society, is revived. Some even of our own lawyers have held the same doctrine, which appears to have been borrowed from the notions of some civilians (*r*); but the doctrine is an unwarranted one, and it is now antiquated. The law of England admits of no such excuse (*s*); and our law is in this respect agreeable, not only to the sentiments of many of the wisest of the antients, particularly Cicero (*t*), who holds that "*suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, potius quam de alterius commodis detrahendum*," but also to the Jewish law, as certified by King Solomon himself (*u*). And that upon the highest reason; for men's properties would be in a strange condition of insecurity, if they were liable to be invaded according to the wants of others, of which wants no one can possibly be an adequate judge, much less the party himself who pleads them. In this country, especially, there would be a peculiar impropriety in admitting so dubious an excuse; for by our laws such sufficient provision is made for the poor, that it seems impossible for anyone, however poor and needy, to be reduced, unless criminally disposed, to the necessity of thieving to support nature.

To these several cases in which the incapacity of committing crimes arises from a deficiency of will, we may add one more, being a case in which, from the excellence and perfection of the person, the law supposes an incapacity of doing wrong, *scil.*, the case of the king, who, by virtue of his royal prerogative, is supposed incapable of committing even a folly, much less a crime (*x*).]

(*r*) *De Jure B. et P.* l. 2, c. 2; *L. of Nat. and N.* l. 2, c. 6.
(*s*) Britt. c. 10; Mirror. c. 4, s. 16; 1 Hale, P. C. 54.
(*t*) *De Off.* l. 3, c. 5.
(*u*) Prov. vi. 30.
(*x*) 1 Hale, P. C. 44.

CHAPTER III.

OF PRINCIPALS AND ACCESSORIES.

[HAVING considered in the preceding chapter the persons who are, or who are not, capable of committing crimes, we are next to consider the different degrees of guilt among persons capable of offending; in other words, we have now to consider the law of *principal* and *accessory*.

I. And firstly, *with regard to principal offenders.*—It is said, that a man may be *principal* in two degrees; in the first degree, if he be the actor or absolute perpetrator of the crime, and in the second degree, if he be present aiding and abetting the act done (*a*). This *presence* need not be an actual standing by, within sight or hearing of the act; but may be a constructive presence, as when one commits a robbery or murder, and another keeps watch or guard at some convenient distance (*b*). Thus, too, in case of murder by poisoning, a man may be a principal felon, by preparing and laying the poison, or by persuading another to drink it, or by giving it to him for that purpose (*c*); and yet not administer it himself, nor be present when the very deed of poisoning is committed (*d*). And the same reasoning will hold, with regard to other murders committed in the absence of the murderer, by means which the offender had prepared beforehand, and which could not fail of their mischievous effect,—*e.g.*, by

(*a*) 1 Hale, P. C. 615.

(*b*) Foster, 350; *R.* v. *Gogerly* (1818), Russ. & R. 343.

(*c*) Foster, 349; *R.* v. *Harley* (1830), 4 Car. & P. 369.

(*d*) 3 Inst. 138; 1 Hale, P. C. 616; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 29, s. 11.

[laying a trap or pitfall for another, whereby he is killed, letting out a wild beast, with an intent to do mischief, or exciting a madman to commit murder, so that death thereupon ensues. In every one of these cases, the party offending is guilty of murder, as a principal in the first degree. For he cannot be called an accessory, that necessarily presupposing a principal ; and the poison, the pitfall, the beast, or the madman, are but the instruments of death. He is therefore guilty as a principal ; and, if as a principal, then in the first degree, for there is no other criminal, much less a superior, in the guilt, whom he could aid, abet, or assist (*e*).] And it is to be observed also, that, though the law makes the distinction between principals in the first and in the second degree, yet in general the punishment inflicted upon either class of offenders is the same (*f*).

II. [Secondly, *with regard to accessories.*—An *accessory* is he who, although not the chief actor in the offence, nor present at its performance, yet is in some way concerned therein, either *before* or *after* the fact committed. We must here consider, first, what offences admit of accessories, and what not ; secondly, who may be an accessory *before* the fact ; thirdly, who may be an accessory *after* it ; and, lastly, how accessories, considered merely as such, and as distinguished from principals, are to be treated.

1. And first, as to what offences admit of accessories, and what not.—In treason there are no accessories, but all are principals ; the same acts that make a man accessory in felony, making him a principal in treason, upon account of the heinousness of the crime (*g*). Besides, it is to be

(*e*) 1 Hale, P. C. 617 ; Hawk. *ubi sup.*

(*f*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 98 ; Malicious Damage Act, 1861, s. 56 ; Forgery Act, 1861, s. 49 ; Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 35 ; Offences against the Person Act, 1861, s. 67.

(*g*) 3 Inst. 138 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 613.

[considered, that the bare attempt to commit treason is often actual treason, as imagining the death of the king, or conspiring to take away his crown. And as no one can advise or abet such a crime without an intention to have it done, there can be no accessories before the fact. However, in murder or other felonies, there may, in general, be accessories; but when the essence of the offence is that it is sudden and unpremeditated, as in "voluntary" manslaughter, there can, of course, be no accessories *before* the fact (*h*). Also, in misdemeanors, which are crimes below the degree of felony, there are no accessories, either *before* or *after* the fact; for in these latter cases, all persons concerned therein, if guilty at all, are guilty as principals (*i*). So that, in fact, in treason, all are principals, *propter odium delicti;* and in misdemeanors, all are principals, because *de minimis non curat lex.*

2. Secondly, who may be an accessory BEFORE the fact.—Sir Matthew Hale defines him to be one who, being absent at the time of the crime committed, doth yet procure, counsel, or command another to commit the crime (*k*); and according to this definition, absence is necessary to make him an accessory, for if he be present, he is guilty of the crime as principal (*l*). If A. then advises B. to kill another, and B. does it in the absence of A.; now B. is principal and A. is accessory to the murder. And this holds, even though the party killed be not *in rerum naturâ* at the time of the advice given; *e.g.*, if A., the reputed father, advises B., the mother of a bastard child, unborn, to strangle it when born, and she does so, A.

(*h*) 1 Hale, P. C. 615, 616; but in "involuntary" manslaughter accessories before the fact are not impossible (*R.* v. *Gaylor* (1857), Dears. & B. 288). *Vide infra*, p. 50.

(*i*) Hale, *ubi sup.*; *R.* v. *Greenwood* (1852), 21 L. J. M. C. 127; *Benford* v. *Sims*, [1898] 2 Q. B. 641; Accessories and Abettors Act, 1861, s. 8.

(*k*) 1 Hale, P. C. 615, 616; *R.* v. *Gregory* (1867), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 77.

(*l*) *R.* v. *Jordan* (1836), 7 Car. & P. 432.

[is accessory to this murder (*m*). For whoever procureth a felony to be committed, though it be by the intervention of a third person, is an accessory before the fact (*n*). Likewise he also, who in anywise commands or counsels another to commit an unlawful act, is accessory to all that ensues upon that unlawful act, supposing at least that it was a probable consequence thereof (*o*). Thus, if A. advises B. to rob C., and B. does so accordingly, and on resistance made *kills* C., B. is guilty of murder as principal, and A. as accessory (*p*). On the other hand, if A. commands B. to burn C.'s house, and B., in so doing, commits a robbery, A., though accessory to the burning, is not accessory to the robbery ; for that is a thing of a distinct and unconsequential nature (*q*). But, even in this latter class of cases, if the felony committed be the same in substance with that which is commanded, and only varying in some circumstantial matters,—as if upon a command to poison Titius, he is stabbed, or shot, and dies,—the person commanding is still accessory to the murder ; for the substance of the thing commanded was the death of Titius, and the manner of its execution is a mere collateral circumstance (*r*).

3. An accessory AFTER the fact is one who, knowing a felony to have been committed, receives, relieves, comforts or assists the felon (*s*). To make such an accessory, it is in the first place requisite, that he knows of the felony committed, and that it was committed by the party in question (*t*) ; and then he must receive, relieve, comfort, or assist the criminal. And any assistance whatever makes the assistor an accessory, as furnishing him with a horse to escape his pursuers, a house or other shelter to conceal him, or using open force and violence to rescue or protect

(*m*) Dyer, 186.
(*n*) Foster, 125, 370.
(*o*) 1 Hale, P. C. 617.
(*p*) Fost. *ubi sup.*
(*q*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 29, s. 22.
(*r*) *Ibid.* s. 20.
(*s*) 1 Hale, P. C. 618.
(*t*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 32.

[him (*u*). To convey any means to a felon to enable him thereby to break gaol, or to bribe the gaoler to let him escape, makes a man an accessory (*x*). But to buy or receive stolen goods, knowing them to be stolen, did not, *by the common law*, make the buyer or receiver guilty as an accessory of the theft; for he received the *goods* only, and did not receive the *felon* (*y*).

And it is a rule also, that the felony must be complete at the time of the assistance given, else it makes not the assistor an accessory; *e.g.*, if one wounds another mortally, and after the wound given, but before death ensues, a person assists or receives the delinquent, this does not make him accessory to the homicide. For till death ensues there is in such a case no homicide (*z*). But so strict is the law, where a felony has been committed, that even the nearest relations of the offender are not suffered to aid or to receive him. And therefore, if the parent assists his child, or the child the parent; if the brother receives the brother; the master the servant, or the servant the master; or if the husband receives the wife,—in every case, they become accessories after the fact (*a*). But the wife receiving or concealing her husband is presumed to act under his coercion; and she is not bound, in fact, neither ought she, to discover her lord (*b*). She is therefore not liable as an accessory after the fact; nor can she be indicted as for receiving stolen goods, when she receives them of her husband the thief (*c*).

4. How accessories are to be treated, considered as distinct from principals.—The general rule of the antient

(*u*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 29, ss. 26, 27, 28.

(*x*) *Cf.* Prison Act, 1865, ss. 37—40.

(*y*) Receiving of stolen goods was, even at common law, a separate misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment (1 Hale, 620), and is now a statutory offence. See *post*, p. 121.

(*z*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 35.

(*a*) 3 Inst. 108; Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 34.

(*b*) 1 Hale, P. C. 47, 621; *R.* v. *Good* (1842), 1 Car. & K. 185.

(*c*) *R.* v. *Brooks* (1853), 22 L. J. M. C. 121.

[law, borrowed from the Gothic constitutions, was this, that accessories should suffer the same punishment as their principals (*d*). If one was liable to death, the other was also liable; as, by the laws of Athens, delinquents and their abettors were to receive the same punishment (*e*).] And with that rule, so far as regards accessories *before* the fact, the modern rule is strictly consonant; for, by the Accessories and Abettors Act, 1861, s. 1, re-enacting the like provision contained in the Criminal Procedure Act, 1848, s. 1, all these may be indicted, tried, convicted, and punished, in all respects as if they were the principal offenders (*f*).

[It has been said, that accessories and principals are distinguished in law, in order to distinguish the nature of the crime of each, and so that the accused may know how to defend himself, the commission of a robbery being a different accusation from that of harbouring a robber; and also because though accessories before the fact are treated as principals, yet accessories *after* the fact are usually punished with less severity,—accessories *after* the fact being, in general, imprisoned for a period not exceeding two years (*g*), though, in the case of murder, accessories *after* the fact may be kept in penal servitude even for life (*h*). Formerly, no man could be tried as accessory till after the principal was convicted, or, at least, the principal must have been tried at the same time with the accessory (*i*); but this rule no longer holds good (*k*). Furthermore, if a man on being indicted as an accessory is acquitted, he may afterwards be indicted as a principal; for an acquittal of receiving or counselling a felon is no acquittal of the

(*d*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 3, c. 5.

(*e*) Pott. *Antiq.* b. 1, c. 26.

(*f*) See also the statutes referred to in note (*f*) on p. 31.

(*g*) Accessories and Abettors Act, 1861, s. 4.

(*h*) Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 67.

(*i*) 1 Hale, P. C. 623; Fost. 363.

(*k*) Accessories and Abettors Act, 1861, ss. 1, 2, 3; *R.* v. *Richards* (1877), 2 Q. B. D. 311.

[felony itself. And although it was formerly a matter of some doubt, whether, if a man on being indicted as a principal was acquitted, he could afterwards be indicted as an accessory *before* the fact,—since an acquittal of the guilt of the one offence might (it was thought) be an acquittal of the other also (*l*),—that doubt has been long overruled (*m*). Again, one acquitted as a principal may be indicted as an accessory *after* the fact, since that is always an offence of a different species of guilt, principally tending to evade public justice ; and it is subsequent also in its commission to the other.]

(*l*) 1 Hale, P. C. 625, 626 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 35, s. 11.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Plant and Birchenough* (1836), 7 Car. & P. 575 ; *R.* v. *Parry* (1837), *id.* 836.

CHAPTER IV.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST THE PERSON AND REPUTATION.

We now proceed to consider the several species of offences, with the punishments annexed thereto respectively; and here we shall treat—first, of offences against the *persons* of individuals; secondly, of offences against their *property;* and thirdly, of offences against those *public rights* which belong in common to all the different members of the state.

First, then, with respect to those offences which affect the *persons* of individuals. These offences not only involve a civil injury to the particular private person proximately affected thereby, but are also contempts of public justice, and include, almost always, a breach of the public peace; and by their example and evil tendency threaten the subversion and endanger the maintenance of civil society. The most important of these is that of taking away life, otherwise called the offence of *homicide.*

I. Homicide may be of several degrees of guilt, arising from the particular circumstances, either of mitigation or of aggravation, which attend it; and homicide may be even *free from legal guilt*, the circumstances being such as to render it *justifiable*, or at least *excusable.* We must consider therefore (1) Justifiable homicide, (2) Excusable homicide, and (3) Felonious homicide; our duty lying chiefly with the third or felonious kind.

1. *Justifiable Homicide.*—First, homicide occasioned in the due execution of public justice, *e.g.*, in putting a malefactor to death who has been duly tried and sentenced,

is [an act of necessity, and even of civil duty ; and therefore not only justifiable, but commendable, where the law requires it. But the law must *require* it, otherwise it is not justifiable ; and therefore wantonly to kill the greatest of malefactors is murder (*a*). For, as Bracton very justly observes, "*istud homicidium, si fit ex livore, vel delectatione* " *effundendi humanum sanguinem, licet justè occidatur iste,* " *tamen occisor peccat mortaliter, proper intentionem cor-* " *ruptam*" (*b*). And the law is so very positive in this requirement, that if judgment of death be given by a judge not authorised by a lawful commission, and such judgment be duly executed, the judge, it has been said, is guilty of murder (*c*). For this reason, Sir Matthew Hale, though he accepted a judgeship of the Common Pleas under Cromwell, yet declined to sit on the Crown side at the assizes or to try prisoners, having a very strong misgiving with regard to the legality of his commission (*d*). The law, also, is very positive in this further particular also, namely, in requiring that every legal judgment of death shall be executed by the proper officer or his duly appointed deputy. No one else is *required* by law to carry it out, which requisition it is, that justifies the homicide ; and if another person should execute the criminal, it is held to be murder (*e*), even though it be the judge himself (*f*). Moreover, the judgment of death must be executed *serrato juris ordine*, that is to say, it must pursue the sentence of the court ; therefore, if an officer beheads one who is adjudged to be hanged, or *vice versâ*, it is murder, for he is merely ministerial, and, therefore, only justified when he acts under the authority and compulsion of the law. The king, indeed, may remit part of a sentence ; and, for example, in the case of *treason*, the

(*a*) 1 Hale, P. C. 497.
(*b*) L. 3, tr. 2, c. 4.
(*c*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 28, s. 5.
(*d*) Burnet, *Life of Sir M. Hale.*
(*e*) 1 Hale, P. C. 501 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 28, s. 9.
(*f*) Dalt. *Just.* c. 150.

[peculiar severities with which the sentence of death used to be accompanied, were in modern times often remitted. Such exercise of mercy was not, however, the introduction of a different punishment from that authorized by the law, but only a relaxation of it from motives of humanity (*g*).

Secondly, justifiable homicide may be committed for the ADVANCEMENT OF PUBLIC JUSTICE,—as where a peace officer or his assistant, in the due execution of his office, arrests or attempts to arrest one who resists, and who is killed in the struggle (*h*) ; or where, in the case of a riot or rebellious assembly, peace officers or their assistants kill any of the mob, in their endeavour to disperse it, which is justifiable both at common law and by the Riot Act (*i*) ; or where the prisoners in a gaol assault the gaoler or officer, and he in self-defence kills any of them, which is justifiable, for the sake of preventing an escape (*k*) ;] or where an officer or his assistant, in the due execution of his office, arrests or attempts to arrest a party for felony, and the party having notice thereof flies, and is killed by such officer or assistant in the pursuit (*l*) ; or where, upon such offence as last described, and under the like circumstances, a private person, *in whose sight* the felony has been committed, arrests or endeavours to arrest the offender, and kills him in resistance or flight (*m*). But a private person may not so justify, if he proceeds upon a mere suspicion of a felony (*n*). [In all cases, there must be an apparent necessity ; that is, it must be shown, *e.g.*, that the party could not be otherwise secured, or that the riot could not be otherwise suppressed, or that the

(*g*) 3 Inst. 52, 212.

(*h*) Foster, 270, 309 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 494.

(*i*) 1 Hale, P. C. 495 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 65, ss. 11, 12.

(*k*) 1 Hale, P. C. 496 ; *R.* v. *Leonin and Jacob* (1221), Maitland, *Select Pleas*, 85 ; Kelly, *Select Cases*, 143.

(*l*) Fost. 271 ; *R.* v. *Dadson* (1850), 20 L. J. M. C. 57 ; *John Small's Case* (1323), *Select Coroners' Rolls*, 79 ; Kelly, *Select Cases*, 143.

(*m*) 2 Hale, P. C. 77, 82.

(*n*) *Ibid.* 83, 84 ; Fost. 318.

[prisoners could not be otherwise kept in hold. For, without such absolute necessity, the homicide is not justifiable.

Thirdly, such homicide as is committed for the PREVENTION OF ANY FORCIBLE AND ATROCIOUS CRIME (*o*), is justifiable by the law of nature (*p*); and also by the law of England, as it stood so early as in the time of Bracton (*q*), and as it stands at the present day.] For now, by section 7 of the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, no punishment shall be incurred by any person who shall kill another in his own defence or in any other manner without felony. [Wherefore, if any one attempts a robbery or murder, or to break open a house *in the night time*, and is killed in such attempt, either by the party assaulted, or by the owner of the house, or by the servant attendant upon either, or by any other person present and interposing to prevent mischief, the slayer shall be acquitted and discharged (*r*). But this rule does not apply to any crime unaccompanied with force, as, for example, the picking of pockets; nor to the breaking open of a house *in the day time*, unless such entry carries with it an attempt at robbery, arson, murder, or the like (*s*). So the Jewish laws made homicide only justifiable in cases of *nocturnal* housebreaking, enacting that "if "a thief be found breaking up, and he be smitten that he "die, no blood shall be shed for him; but if the sun be "risen upon him, there shall blood be shed for him, for "he should have made full restitution" (*t*). Similarly, by the Athenian law, if any theft was committed by night, it was lawful to kill the criminal, if taken in the act (*u*); and by the Roman Law of the Twelve Tables, a thief by night might be slain with impunity, as also might even a thief by day, if he armed himself with any dangerous

(*o*) Fost. 275; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 28, ss. 21, 24.

(*p*) Puff. *L. of N.* l. ii. c. 5.

(*q*) L. 3. tr. 2, c. 36; *cf. R.* v. *Macgridge* (1706), Kel. 119; 17 St. Tri. 57.

(*r*) Fost. 274; 1 Hale, P. C. 488.

(*s*) 1 Hale, P. C. 488; 1 East, P. C. c. 5, s. 44; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 28, s. 23; Fost. 274.

(*t*) Exod. xxii. 2.

(*u*) Potter, *Antiq.* b. 1, c. 24.

[weapons (*x*). And the Roman law justified homicide also when committed in defence of the chastity either of one's self or of one's relations (*y*); and so, too, according to Selden, did the Jewish law (*z*). And the English law justifies a woman in killing one who attempts to ravish her (*a*); and a husband or father may justify killing a man who attempts a rape upon his wife or daughter, but not if he takes either of them in adultery or fornication with the man (*b*).]

Fourthly, there is said to be one species of justifiable homicide, where the party slain is equally innocent as he who occasions his death, the justification in this case arising from the principle of self-preservation, which prompts every man to save his own life preferably to that of another, where the one of them must inevitably perish; and to this head belongs that hypothetical case mentioned by Lord Bacon, where two persons being shipwrecked, and getting on the same plank, but finding it not able to save them both, one of them thrust the other from it, whereby he was drowned (*c*). But shipwrecked sailors, who, in order to escape death by starvation, kill one of their number for the purpose of eating his flesh, have been held guilty of murder, although they reasonably believed that by no other means could they save their lives; and Lord Coleridge dismissed Lord Bacon's dictum by saying, that if Lord Bacon meant to lay down the broad proposition, that a man may save his life by killing, if necessary, an innocent and unoffending neighbour, it certainly is not law at the present day (*d*).

(*x*) Cic. *Pro Milone*, 3; Dig. 9, 2, 4.

(*y*) "*Divus Hadrianus rescripsit eum qui stuprum sibi vel suis inferentem occidit, dimittendum.*"—Dig. 48, 8, 1.

(*z*) *De Legibus Hebræor.* l. iv. c. 3.

(*a*) Bac. Elem. 34; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 28, s. 21; Fost. *ubi sup.*

(*b*) 1 Hale, P. C. 485, 486.

(*c*) Bac. *Maxims*, reg. 5.

(*d*) *R.* v. *Dudley and Stephens* (1884), 14 Q. B. D. 273, 560. Sir. J. Stephen (*Dig. Cr. Law*, Art. 33) considers that this case is distinguishable from Lord Bacon's instance.

[2. *Excusable homicide.*—This happens either *per infortunium* (by misadventure), or *se defendendo* (upon a sudden affray). Homicide *per infortunium* arises where a man, doing a lawful act without any intention of hurt,] and without any culpable want of care, [unfortunately kills another; as where a man is at work with a hatchet, and the head thereof flies off and kills a stander-by, or where a person is shooting at a mark, and undesignedly kills a man (*e*). For the act is lawful, and the effect is merely accidental. So where a parent is moderately correcting his child, or a master his apprentice or scholar, and happens to occasion his death, it is only misadventure, for the flogging was lawful; but if he exceeds the bounds of moderation either in the manner, the instrument, or the quantity of punishment, and death ensues, it is at least manslaughter, and it may (according to the circumstances) be murder, for the immoderate correction is unlawful (*f*). And in these distinctions, our law agrees with the later Roman law (*g*). And to whip another's horse, whereby the horse runs over and kills a child, is said to be accidental in the rider, for he has done nothing unlawful; but manslaughter in the whipper, for the act was a trespass, and at best a piece of idleness, of dangerous consequence (*h*). And in general, as regards all dangerous, idle, and unlawful sports, if the death of either or any of the parties to the game is caused by a thrust, stab, or the like, the slayer is guilty of manslaughter (*i*).

Secondly, homicide *se defendendo* is also *excusable* rather than *justifiable* by the English law. But the self-defence of which we are now speaking is that whereby a man may protect himself from an assault or the like, in the

(*e*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 29, ss. 2, 6.

(*f*) 1 Hale, P. C. 473, 474; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 29, s. 5; *Cleary* v. *Booth*, [1893] 1 Q. B. 465.

(*g*) Cod. L. ix. t. 14.

(*h*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 29, s. 3; *Ward's Case* (1789), 1 East, P. C. 270.

(*i*) 1 Hale, P. C. 472; Fost. 275; Hawk. *ubi sup.* c. 30, s. 1.

[course only of a sudden brawl or quarrel, by killing him who assaults him; and must be distinguished from the case, recently mentioned, of *justifiable* homicide, done to prevent the perpetration of a crime (*k*). And this is one instance of what the law expresses by the phrase *chance medley*, or (as some rather choose to write it) *chaud medley*, the former of which phrases in its etymology signifies a *casual* affray, the latter an affray in the *heat* of blood or passion, both phrases of pretty much the same import; but the former is, in common speech, too often erroneously applied to any manner of homicide by misadventure, whereas it appears, by the 24 Hen. VIII. (1532), c. 5, and our antient books, that it is properly applied to such killing only as happens upon a sudden encounter (*l*). Also, to excuse homicide by the plea of self-defence, it must appear that the slayer had no other possible (or at least probable) means of escaping from his assailant.

It is frequently difficult to distinguish this species of homicide upon sudden affray, from that of *manslaughter* in the proper legal sense of the word (*m*); and it is rather in connection with manslaughter that the phrase *chance medley* is properly employed. But the true distinction between them appears to be this, namely, that when both parties were actually combating, at the time when the mortal stroke was given, or if the slayer was not at that time in immediate danger of death, the slayer is guilty of manslaughter. But if the slayer had not begun to fight, or (having begun) declined, or endeavoured to decline, any further struggle, and afterwards, being closely pressed by his antagonist, killed him to avoid his own destruction, this is excusable homicide (*n*). And the law requires, that the person who kills another in his own defence, should have retreated as far as he conveniently or safely

(*k*) *Ante*, p. 40.
(*l*) Kel. 67; 3 Inst. 55, 59; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 30, s. 1; Fost. 275.
(*m*) 3 Inst. 55.
(*n*) Fost. 277.

[can, to avoid the violence of the assault, before he gives the mortal stroke (*o*); and that, not fictitiously, or in order to watch his opportunity (for to kill in that way would be murder) (*p*), but from a real tenderness of shedding his brother's blood. And though it may be cowardice, in time of war between two independent nations, to flee from an enemy, yet between two fellow subjects the law countenances no such point of honour; because the king and his courts are the *vindices injuriarum*, and will give to the party wronged all the satisfaction he deserves (*q*). In this particular, the civil law also agrees with ours, "*qui cum aliter tueri se non possunt, damni culpam dederint, innoxii sunt*" (*r*). The party assaulted must therefore flee as far as he conveniently can, either by reason of some wall, ditch, or other impediment, or as far as the fierceness of the assault will permit him (*s*); and this is the doctrine of universal justice, as well as of the municipal law (*t*). And the *time* of the defence is also to be considered. For if the person assaulted does not fall upon the aggressor till the fray is over, or when he is running away, this is revenge and not defence; and the law will not permit a man, under the colour of self-defence, to screen himself from the guilt of deliberate murder. Thus if two persons, A. and B., agree to fight a duel, and A. gives the first onset, and B. retreats as far as he safely can, and then kills A., this is murder, because of the previous design (*u*). Yet if A., upon a sudden quarrel, assaults B. first, and, upon B.'s returning the assault, really and *bonâ fide* flies; and then, being driven to the wall, turns again upon B. and kills him,—this according to some (*x*), but not according to others (*y*), is

(*o*) 1 Hale, P. C. 479; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 29, s. 15.
(*p*) *Ibid.* s. 17
(*q*) 1 Hale, P. C. 481.
(*r*) Dig. 9, 2, 45.
(*s*) 1 Hale, P. C. 483.
(*t*) Puff. *L. of N.* b. 2, c. 5, s. 13.
(*u*) 1 Hale, P. C. 479.
(*x*) *Ibid.* 482.
(*y*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 29, s. 17.

[excusable homicide. This excuse of self-defence is available (the other requisites being present) for masters and servants, parents and children, husbands and wives, killing an assailant in the necessary defence of each other respectively, the act of the relation being construed as the act of the party himself (*z*).

EXCUSABLE homicide involves in it some degree of legal blame, and was formerly distinguishable from JUSTIFIABLE homicide. For, as regards homicide by misadventure, the law presumes negligence, or at least some want of caution, in the unfortunate homicide (*a*) ; and as regards homicide upon a sudden affray, which Lord Bacon calls *necessitas culpabilis* (*b*), the law does not hold the survivor entirely guiltless. Under the Mosaic law, which appointed certain asylums or cities of refuge for him who had killed his neighbour unawares (*c*), the manslayer was not held wholly blameless ; but, on the contrary, the avenger of blood might slay him before he reached that asylum, or if he afterwards stirred out of it, till the death of the high priest. In the Imperial law, likewise, casual homicide, until excused by the indulgence of the emperor, signed with his own sign-manual, "*adnotatione principis*," was in some degree punishable (*d*) ; and among the Greeks, it was expiated by voluntary banishment for a year (*e*). In Saxony, it was recompensed by a fine paid to the kindred of the slain ; and among the Western Goths, it was esteemed as being little inferior to voluntary homicide (*f*). Formerly in France, no person was ever absolved in the case of homicide by misadventure, without a largess to the poor, and the charge of certain masses for the soul of the party killed. And by the law of England, the penalty for this species of killing is said by Sir Edward

(*z*) 1 Hale, P. C. 484.
(*a*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 28, s. 24.
(*b*) Elem. c. 5.
(*c*) Numb. xxxv. and Deut. xix.
(*d*) Cod. 9, 16, 5.
(*e*) Plato *de Leg.* l. 9.
(*f*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 3, c. 4.

[Coke to have been antiently no less than death (*g*). But that has been denied by later writers (*h*); and the penalty seems rather to have consisted in a forfeiture of all (or of part of) the goods and chattels, by way of fine or *were-gild* (*i*), or compensation,—the compensation being probably disposed of (as in France), *in pios usus*, according to the humane superstition of the times, for the benefit of *his* soul who was suddenly sent to his account with all his imperfections on his head. But that reason having long ceased, and the penalty, especially of a total forfeiture, growing more severe than was intended, in proportion as personal property became more considerable, the delinquent had, as early as our records will reach, a pardon and writ of restitution of his goods as a matter of course and of right, only paying for suing out the same (*k*); and in later times, to prevent this expense, in cases where the death notoriously happened by misadventure or in self-defence, the judges usually directed a general verdict of acquittal (*l*).] At last it was provided by the 9 Geo. IV. (1828), c. 31, s. 10, that no punishment or forfeiture should be thenceforth incurred by any person who should kill another by misadventure or in his own defence, or in any other manner without felony; and though this provision was afterwards repealed, a clause to the same purpose was inserted in the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 7, the statute by which offences against the person are at present regulated. So that now all practical distinction between justifiable and excusable homicide is, in our law, wholly done away.

3. [*Felonious homicide.*—This is the killing of a human creature, of any age or sex, without justification or excuse; which killing may be either of one's self, or of another. We propose to consider each of these two varieties of felonious homicide.

(*g*) 2 Inst. 148, 315.
(*h*) 1 Hale, P. C. 425; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 29, s. 21; Fost. 282.
(*i*) Fost. 283, 287.
(*k*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 2.
(*l*) Fost. 288.

[First, *Self-murder.*—This appears to have been to some extent countenanced by the civil law (*m*); but, by the Athenian law, it was punished with the cutting off the hand which had done the desperate deed (*n*). And the law of England wisely considers, that no man hath a right to take his own life. A suicide is, in fact, guilty of a twofold offence, one spiritual, in invading the prerogative of the Almighty, and the other temporal, against the king, who hath an interest in the preservation of all his subjects; and our law accordingly has ranked suicide among the highest crimes, esteeming it a felony committed on one's self.] If one persuades another to kill himself, and he does so in the adviser's presence, the latter is guilty of murder as a principal, and he may be tried and convicted accordingly. Also, if two persons mutually agree to commit suicide *together*, and accordingly take poison together, and only one dies, the survivor is guilty of murder (*o*). But, formerly, a person could not be tried as an accessory before the fact for inciting another to commit suicide if that other actually did commit it; for in that case the principal could not be tried (*p*). This difficulty, however, now appears to be removed by section 1 of the Accessories and Abettors Act, 1861.

A *felo de se*, therefore, is he that deliberately puts an end to his own existence; and he also is so considered who, while maliciously attempting to kill another, occasions his own death, as where a man shoots at another, and the gun bursts and kills himself (*q*). But if a man is killed at his own request, by the hand of another, the former is not deemed in law a *felo de se*, though the latter is a

(*m*) "*Si quis impatientiâ doloris "aut tædio vitæ, aut morbo, aut "furore, aut pudore, mori maluit, "non animadvertatur in eum.*"—Dig. 49, 16, 6.

(*n*) Pott. *Antiq.* b. 1, c. 26.

(*o*) *R.* v. *Alison* (1838), 8 Car. & P. 418.

(*p*) *R.* v. *Russell* (1832), 1 Mood. 356; *R.* v. *Leddington* (1839), 9 Car. & P. 79.

(*q*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 27, s. 4.

[murderer (*r*). In homicide committed on one's self, the party must be of years of discretion, and in his senses, else it is no crime; but this excuse ought not to be strained to that length to which our coroners' juries are apt to carry it, viz. that the very act of suicide is an evidence of insanity. For the same argument would prove every other criminal *non compos*, as well as the self-murderer; and the law very rationally judges, that every fit of melancholy does not deprive a man of the capacity of discerning right from wrong, or of having a sufficient degree of reason to know that his act is wrong. And therefore if a real lunatic kills himself in a lucid interval, he is a *felo de se* as much as a sane man (*s*).

But now the question follows, what punishment can human laws inflict on the suicide, he having withdrawn himself (so to speak) from the reach of human laws? They can, of course, only act upon what the suicide has left behind him, viz., his reputation and fortune. And this the law of England formerly did with the greatest severity; for it acted first on the reputation of the suicide, by assigning to him an ignominious burial in the highway, with a stake driven through his body, and without Christian rites of sepulture, and, secondly, on his fortune, by inflicting a forfeiture of all his goods and chattels. So that a man's care either for his own reputation or for the welfare of his family might be a motive to restrain him from an act so desperate and so wicked.] But in modern times, this ignominious burial has ceased, the Interments (Felo de se) Act, 1882, having provided, that the coroner shall not in future direct the interment of a *felo de se* in any public highway or with any stake driven through the body, but shall direct him to be interred in the churchyard or other burial ground; though nothing in the Act authorises the performing of any of the rites of Christian

(*r*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 27, s. 6.

(*s*) 1 Hale, P. C. 412; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 27, s. 2.

burial on the remains of any person found *felo de se*. And the forfeiture of the felon's goods has also now ceased to be a consequence of this (as of any other) felony. But such forfeiture, it is interesting to observe, used to have relation back to the time of the commission of the felony; [and therefore if husband and wife were possessed jointly of a term of years in land, and the husband drowned himself, the land was forfeited to the Crown, and the wife lost the survivorship. For, by the act of casting himself into the water, the husband forfeited the term, and the Crown title which accrued upon that act was a title which accrued *prior* to the wife's title by survivorship, which latter did not accrue until the actual death (*u*).]

But while a man who succeeds in committing suicide thereby puts himself beyond the reach of human punishment, if his attempt is unsuccessful he can be put on his trial. And every attempt to commit suicide is an indictable misdemeanour at common law, punishable by fine or imprisonment.

[Secondly, *killing another man*.—This is the second variety of *felonious* homicide; and it is either *manslaughter* or *murder*, the difference between which two varieties of the offence (where each is consciously voluntary) consisting principally in this, that manslaughter is from the sudden heat of the passions, while murder is from the wickedness of the heart.

(I.) MANSLAUGHTER is thus defined, namely, as the unlawful killing of another, without malice, either express or implied (*x*); which may be either voluntary, upon a sudden heat, or involuntary, but in the commission of some unlawful act, not amounting to felony. And these two species of killing were called, in the Gothic institutions, "*homicidia vulgaria; quæ aut casu, aut etiam sponte* "*committuntur, sed in subitaneo quodam iracundiæ calore et*

(*u*) Finch, L. 216.

(*x*) 1 Hale, P. C. 466.

[*impetu*" (*y*). Hence it has been said, (*z*) that in manslaughter there can be no accessories before the fact; because the killing must be without premeditation. But this is not invariably true, for an accessory before the fact may exist in involuntary manslaughter; for instance, if A. urges B. to play a practical joke on C. in circumstances which make B. guilty of manslaughter, A. might well be guilty as an accessory before the fact (*a*).

And first, as to VOLUNTARY manslaughter. If upon a sudden quarrel, in the way of chance medley, two persons fight, and the one of them kills the other, that is manslaughter; and so it is, if they upon such an occasion go out and fight in a field. For this is one continued act of passion; and the law pays such regard to human frailty, as not to put a hasty act upon the same footing, with regard to guilt, as an act which is deliberate (*b*). So, also, if a man being greatly provoked, as by pulling his nose, or by other great indignity, immediately kills the aggressor, though he is not excusable *se defendendo*, since there is no absolute necessity for doing it to preserve himself, yet neither is it murder, for there is no previous malice (*c*). But in this, and every other case of homicide upon provocation, if there be a sufficient cooling time for passion to subside and reason to interpose, and the person so provoked afterwards kills the other, this is deliberate revenge, and not heat of blood; and accordingly amounts to murder (*d*).] The provocation, in order to reduce murder to manslaughter, must be very gross. Mere words are hardly ever sufficient, at any rate if the killing be with a deadly weapon; and even an actual assault is not enough unless it is very insulting or violent. [So if a man takes another in the

(*y*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 3, c. 4.

(*z*) 1 Hale, P. C. 437, 466, 615; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 29, s. 24.

(*a*) *R.* v. *Gaylor* (1857), Dears. & B. 288.

(*b*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 31, s. 29.

(*c*) Kelyng, 135.

(*d*) Fost. 296.

[act of adultery with his wife, and kills him directly on the spot; though this was allowed by the laws of Solon (*e*), as likewise by the Roman civil law where the adulterer was found in the husband's own house (*f*), and also among the antient Goths(*g*), yet in England this is not allowed, but the killing is manslaughter (*h*). However, in such a case, the court (because of the greatness of the provocation) directed the burning in the hand, the punishment which was formerly inflicted for manslaughter, to be gently inflicted (*i*).

Secondly, as to INVOLUNTARY manslaughter. This differs from homicide by misadventure, in respect that misadventure imports a lawful act, but this species of manslaughter is in consequence of an unlawful act. As if two persons play at sword and buckler (which appears to have been, at one time, an unlawful game), and one of them kills the other, this was manslaughter, because the game was unlawful; but it was not murder, for the one had no intent to do the other any mischief (*k*). And so it is, where a person does an act, lawful in itself, but in an unlawful manner, that is to say, without due caution and circumspection; as when a workman without due warning, flings down a stone or piece of timber into the street and kills a man. This killing, may be either misadventure, manslaughter, or murder, according to the circumstances under which the act was done; for if it is done in a country village where few passengers are, and he call out to all people to have a care, it is misadventure only. But if it is in London, or in any populous town, where people are continuously passing, it is manslaughter, though he gives warning (*l*). And it is murder, if he knows of their passing, and gives no warning at all; for in the latter case, it is malice against all mankind (*m*).] If a man

(*e*) Plut. *in Vit. Solon.*
(*f*) Dig. 48, 5, 24.
(*g*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 3, c. 2.
(*h*) 1 Hale, P. C. 486.
(*i*) Sir T. Raym. 212.
(*k*) 3 Inst. 56.
(*l*) Kel. 40.
(*m*) 3 Inst. 57.

engages in rifle-practice without taking proper precautions to protect others from injury (*n*), or if a parent neglects to call in medical aid for a sick child who could have been cured thereby (*o*), and death ensues, he is guilty of manslaughter; and, generally, if death is the consequence of a breach of duty to the deceased, the failure to observe which was likely to involve him in harm or danger, such a breach of duty is criminal negligence justifying a verdict of manslaughter. [When an involuntary killing happens in consequence of an unlawful act, it will be either murder or manslaughter according to the nature of the act which occasioned the killing; for if the act be in prosecution of a felonious intent, or in its consequences naturally tending to bloodshed, it will be murder. If not, it will at most amount only to manslaughter (*p*).]

Next, with regard to the PUNISHMENT of this species of felonious homicide. The crime of manslaughter amounts to felony; and, at one time, certain kinds of manslaughter (*e.g.*, stabbing) (*q*) were capital felonies. At the present day, any one who is convicted of manslaughter may be sentenced, at the discretion of the court, either (1) to be kept in penal servitude for life or for a term of not less than three years: or (2) to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not exceeding two years: or (3) to pay such fine as the court shall award, which fine may be either in addition to, or in substitution for, the more usual punishment (*r*). And by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 71, the court may require the offender to give security for keeping the peace. There is, of course, also a civil liability in certain cases of manslaughter, either under the Fatal Accidents

(*n*) *R.* v. *Salmon and Others* (1880), 6 Q. B. D. 79.

(*o*) *R.* v. *Senior*, [1899] 1 Q. B. 283.

(*p*) Fost. 258; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 31, s. 46.

(*q*) 1 Jac. 1 (1603), c. 8, repealed by 9 Geo. 4 (1828), c. 31.

(*r*) Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 5; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1.

Act, 1846 (Lord Campbell's Act), or (if the deceased was in the service of the man to blame) under the Employers' Liability Act, 1880, or under the Workmen's Compensation Acts, 1897 and 1900, as explained in a former volume.

[(II.) Deliberate and wilful MURDER, is the second variety of the felonious killing of another. Before entering upon the consideration of this offence, it is interesting to observe, that the word *murdre* was antiently applied only to the secret killing of another (*s*), which the word *moërda* signifies in the Teutonic language (*t*). And murder was defined as "*homicidium quod nullo videnle, nullo sciente, clam perpetratur*" (*u*); for which the vill wherein it was committed,—or, if that were too poor, the whole hundred,—was liable to a heavy amercement, which amercement itself was also denominated *murdrum* (*x*). And this was an antient usage among the Goths in Sweden and Denmark, who supposed the neighbourhood, unless they produced the murderer, to have perpetrated, or at least connived at, the murder (*y*). This usage was introduced into this kingdom by King Canute, to prevent his countrymen, the Danes, from being privily murdered by the English; and was afterwards continued by William the Conqueror, for the security of his Norman followers (*z*). And, therefore, if, upon inquisition had, it appeared that the person found slain was an Englishman (the presentment whereof was denominated *englescherie*), the vill or hundred was excused from this burthen (*a*), but not otherwise. However, under the 14 Edw. III. (1340), st. 1, c. 4, abolishing the above distinctions, it has become necessary to define murder in quite another manner; without regarding whether the party slain was killed

(*s*) Dial. de Scacc. l. 1, c. 10.
(*t*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 3, c. 3.
(*u*) Glanv. l. 14, c. 3.
(*x*) Bract. l. 3, tr. 2, c. 15, s. 7; Stat. Marl. (1267), c. 26; Fost. 281.
(*y*) Stiern. l. 3, c. 4.
(*z*) 1 Hale, P. C. 447.
(*a*) Bract. l. 3, tr. 2, c. 15.

[openly or secretly, or whether he was of English or of foreign extraction. And accordingly, murder is thus defined by Sir Edward Coke (*b*): "When a person of "sound memory and discretion unlawfully killeth any "reasonable creature in being, and under the king's "peace, with malice aforethought, either express or "implied." The best way of examining the nature of this crime, will be by considering the several branches of this definition.

First, it must be committed by a PERSON OF SOUND MEMORY AND DISCRETION; and hence, if there be a defect of the understanding in the person charged,—by reason of his infancy, lunacy, or idiocy, according to the distinctions already considered,—he cannot be convicted of this crime, nor of any other.

Next, there must be an UNLAWFUL KILLING, the unlawfulness arising from the absence of all lawful warrant or excuse; and there must also be an actual killing, to constitute murder, and not merely an assault with intent to kill (*c*). The killing may be by poisoning, striking, starving, drowning, and a thousand other forms of death by which human nature may be overcome (*d*). But if a person be indicted for one species of killing, as by poisoning, he cannot be convicted upon evidence of a totally different species of death, as by shooting with a pistol, or starving; but where the species only differ in circumstances, as if a wound be alleged to be given with a sword, and it proves to have arisen from a staff, an axe, or a hatchet, this difference is immaterial (*e*). Of all species of murder the most detestable is that by poison, because

(*b*) 3 Inst. 47.

(*c*) 1 Hale, P. C. 425.

(*d*) It seems that, by our law, the bearing of false witness against another, *with intent to take away his life*, is not murder, even though the person be convicted on such testimony and executed (*R.* v. *Macdaniel* (1756), 1 Leach, 44; 1 East, P. C. 333; 3 Inst. 48; Fost. 131; 19 St. Tri. 745).

(*e*) 3 Inst. 135; 2 Hale, P. C. 185.

[it can of all others be the least prevented, either by manhood or by forethought (*f*). And therefore, by the 22 Hen. VIII. (1530), c. 9, this species of killing was adjudged treason, and a more grievous and lingering kind of death was inflicted for it than the common law allowed, namely, boiling to death; but this Act did not live long, being repealed by the 1 Edw. VI. (1547), c. 12. It is to be observed, that if a man does an act of which the probable consequence may be, and eventually is, death, such killing may be murder, although no stroke be struck by himself, and no killing may be primarily intended; as was the case of the unnatural son who exposed his sick father to the air against his will, by reason whereof he died (*g*), of the harlot who laid her child under leaves in an orchard, where a kite struck and killed it (*h*), and of the parish officers who shifted a child from parish to parish, till it died for want of care and sustenance (*i*). So, too, if a man hath a beast that is used to do mischief, and he, knowing it, *suffers* it to go abroad, and it kills a man, even this is manslaughter in the owner; but if he had purposely *turned it loose*, though barely to frighten people and make what is called sport, it is with us (as it was in the Jewish law) (*k*) as much murder as if he had incited a bear or a dog to worry them (*l*). But if a physician or surgeon gives his patient a potion or plaster to cure him, which contrary to expectation kills him, this is neither murder nor manslaughter, but misadventure (*m*); and though, by some of the older authorities (*n*), it was held, that if he were not a *regular* physician or surgeon who administered the medicine or performed the operation, it was manslaughter at the least, Sir Matthew Hale very justly questions the law of this determination (*o*).] On the

(*f*) 3 Inst. 48.
(*g*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 31, s. 5.
(*h*) 1 Hale, P. C. 432.
(*i*) Palmer, 548.
(*k*) Exod. xxi. 28, 29.
(*l*) 1 Hale, P. C. 431.
(*m*) 4 Bl. Com. 197.
(*n*) Britt. c. 5; 4 Inst. 251.
(*o*) 1 Hale, P. C. 430.

other hand, it is clear, that where death is occasioned by gross want of skill or care in the medical man (whether he be regularly licensed or not), it will amount to manslaughter ; and cases of this kind have, in fact, been before the courts (*p*). [It is settled, however, in all cases of homicide, that, in order to make the killing murder, it is requisite that the party die within a year and a day after the stroke received, or cause of death administered ; in the computation of which time the whole day, upon which the hurt was done, shall be reckoned the first (*q*).

Further, the person killed must be a REASONABLE CREATURE, IN BEING, AND UNDER THE KING'S PEACE, at the time of the killing (*r*). To kill an alien or an outlaw, being under the king's peace and protection, is therefore as much murder as to kill the most regular-born Englishman. On the other hand, to slay an alien enemy in the heat of battle is not murder (*s*) ; and to kill a child in its mother's womb is not murder, but falls under a different description of crime, which will be considered hereafter (*t*).] If, however, the child is born alive, and die by reason of injuries received in the womb, the person who deliberately inflicted those injuries may be guilty of murder.

[Lastly, the killing must be committed WITH MALICE AFORETHOUGHT, to make it the crime of murder ; and this, in fact, is the grand criterion which distinguishes murder from other killing. And the malice prepense (*malitia præcogitata*) is not so properly spite or malevolence to the deceased in particular, as any evil design in general, the dictate of a wicked, depraved, and malignant heart (*u*),—

(*p*) *R.* v. *St. John Long* (1830), 4 Car. & P. 398, 423 ; *R.* v. *Spiller* (1832), 5 Car. & P. 333.

(*q*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 9.

(*r*) 4 Bl. Com. 198 ; *R.* v. *Lopez* (1858), Dears. & B. 525.

(*s*) 3 Inst. 50 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 433.

(*t*) 1 Hale, P. C. 433.

(*u*) Foster, 256.

[*un disposition à faire un male chose* (*x*),—which *malice* may be either *express* or *implied* malice.

Now EXPRESS malice is exhibited when one, with a deliberate mind and formed design, doth kill another; which formed design may be evidenced by external circumstances, discovering that inward intention, as lying in wait, antecedent menaces, former grudges, and concerted schemes to do him some bodily harm (*y*). This takes place in the case of deliberate duelling, where both parties meet avowedly with an intent to commit homicide, thinking it their duty as gentlemen, and claiming it as their right, to wanton with their own lives and with those of their fellow-creatures, without any warrant or authority from any power either Divine or human, but in direct contradiction to the laws both of God and man. And therefore the law has justly fixed the crime and punishment of murder both on the one who kills the other, and on the murderer's second also (*z*), and has not palliated the offence out of any delicacy to false notions of honour. Also, if even upon a sudden provocation, one beats another in a cruel and unusual manner, so that he dies; though he did not intend his death, yet he is guilty of murder by express malice. As when a park keeper tied a boy that was stealing wood to a horse's tail, and dragged him along the park, when a master corrected his servant with an iron bar, and a schoolmaster stamped on his scholar's belly,—so that each of the sufferers died,—these were justly held to be murders; because the correction being excessive, and such as could not but proceed from a bad heart, it was equivalent to a deliberate act of slaughter (*a*). Neither shall he be guilty of a less crime, who, in consequence of such a wilful act as shows him to be an enemy

(*x*) 2 Roll. R. 461.
(*y*) 1 Hale, P. C. 451.
(*z*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 31, s. 31.
(*a*) 1 Hale, P. C. 454, 473, 474.

[to all mankind in general, causes the death of a fellow creature: as by going deliberately, and with an intent to do mischief (*b*), upon a horse used to strike, or by coolly discharging a gun (*c*), among a multitude of people. So if a man resolves to kill the next man he meets, and does kill him, it is murder, although he knew him not, for this is universal malice; and if two or more come together to do an unlawful act against the peace, of which the consequence may probably be bloodshed,—as to beat a man, to commit a riot, or to rob a park,—and one of them in the prosecution of such intent kills a man, it is murder in them all, because of the unlawful act, the *malitia præcogitata*, or evil intent beforehand (*d*).

Also, in many cases the law will IMPLY malice, as where a man wilfully poisons another; for in such a deliberate act, the law presumes malice, though no particular enmity can be proved (*e*). And if a man kill another suddenly, without any or without a considerable provocation, the law implies malice: for no person, unless of an abandoned heart, would be guilty of such an act, upon a slight or no apparent cause. No affront, indeed, by words or gestures alone is a sufficient provocation to excuse or even to extenuate such acts of violence as manifestly endanger the life of another (*f*); and this is so, although the language should be more provocatory even than a blow. But if the person provoked has unfortunately killed the other, by beating him in such a manner as showed only an intent to chastise and not to kill him, the law so far considers the provocation of contumelious behaviour, as to adjudge it only manslaughter and not murder (*g*). In like manner, if one kills an officer of justice, either civil or criminal, while resisting him in the execution of his duty, and knowing his authority or the

(*b*) Lord Raym. 143.
(*c*) 1 Hale, P. C. 455.
(*d*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 29, s. 12.
(*f*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 31, s. 33; 1 Hale, P. C. 455, 456.
(*d*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 10.
(*g*) Fost. 291.

[intention with which he interposes, or if any of his assistants be killed under the like circumstances, the law will imply malice, and the killer shall be guilty of murder (*h*); though it is manslaughter only, if the warrant under which the officer acts be void, or be executed in an unlawful manner (*i*). So, in case of a sudden affray, if a third person interposes to part the combatants, giving them notice of his friendly intention, and either of the combatants kills him in resisting his interposition, this is murder (*k*). Also, if one intend to commit felony of another kind, involving danger to life, and, in the prosecution of such intent, undesignedly kills a man, this is also murder (*l*); *e.g.*, if one shoots at A., and misses *him*, but kills B., this is murder, because of the previous felonious intent, which the law transfers from the one act to the other, on the maxim *malitia egreditur personam* (*m*). The same is the case where one lays poison for A.; and B. (against whom the prisoner had no felonious intent) takes it, and it kills him, for this is likewise murder (*n*).] Sir Michael Foster laid it down that a man who, while engaged in *any* felonious act, causes another's death is guilty of murder—*e.g.*, a man who shoots at a fowl in order to steal it, and thereby accidentally kills a bystander. But modern judges incline to limit the rule to such felonies as are likely to cause death; and are willing to regard homicides resulting from the commission of a felony not intrinsically likely to have fatal results, as amounting only to manslaughter (*o*).

[It were endless to go through all the cases of homicide which have been adjudged, either expressly or implicitly, malicious. These, therefore, may suffice for examples;

(*h*) 1 Hale, P. C. 457; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 31, s. 55; Fost. 270, 308, etc.

(*i*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* ss. 57, 58; Fost. 312.

(*k*) Fost. 272.

(*l*) 1 Hale, P. C. 465

(*m*) Fost. 262; 1 Hale, P. C. 438, 441.

(*n*) *Ibid.* 466.

(*o*) *R.* v. *Serné* (1887), 16 Cox C. C. 311.

[and we may take it for a general rule, that all homicide is malicious, and of course amounts to murder, unless where *justified* by the command or permission of the law, or else *excused* on account of accident or of self-preservation in a sudden quarrel, or else *alleviated* into manslaughter, by being either the involuntary consequence of some act not strictly lawful, or (if voluntary) occasioned by some sudden and sufficiently violent provocation. And all these circumstances of justification, excuse, or alleviation, it is incumbent upon the prisoner to make out to the satisfaction of the court and jury; the latter of whom are to decide whether the circumstances alleged are proved to have actually existed, the former, how far they extend to mitigate or take away the guilt (*p*). For all homicide is presumed to be malicious, that is to say, of "malice aforethought," until the contrary appeareth upon the evidence (*q*).]

Although the courts of this country can hear and determine all offences committed on board British ships at sea or elsewhere within the Admiralty jurisdiction by seamen serving on board, it was a fundamental principle of the common law, that murder or other crime committed on foreign territory,—*i.e.*, on land situate wholly outside the jurisdiction of the English courts,—could not be tried, or in any way dealt with, in this country; but this principle has been broken in upon by statute (*r*). Thus, by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 9, it has now been provided, as to the particular crimes of *murder* and *manslaughter*, that where either shall be committed by a subject of his Majesty, on land out of the United Kingdom, whether within the King's dominions or without, and whether the person killed be a subject of his Majesty or not, such offence may be dealt with, tried, and punished

(*p*) Fost. 255; *R.* v. *Noon* (1852), 6 Cox C. C. 137.

(*q*) Fost. 255.

(*r*) See, for example, s. 687 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894

in any place in England or Ireland in which such person shall be in custody, in the same manner in all respects as if such offence had been actually committed in that place.

[The punishment of murder has been, from time immemorial, the death of the criminal. And yet in our country this crime, enormous as it is, was in antient times allowed *the benefit of clergy ;* which was a commutation of capital punishment, once allowed to persons in holy orders, or, what was equivalent, to persons who were able to read, and originally allowed to these only, though it was afterwards extended both to clergy and laity, whether able to read or not, but (as so extended) was confined to felonies of the lighter sort, which were, by the law of the time, capital offences. But benefit of clergy was wholly abolished by the Criminal Law Act, 1827, after having been (by several earlier statutes) long before taken away from murderers through malice prepense, their abettors, procurers, and counsellors (*s*) ;] and by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 1, continuing a similar enactment in the 9 Geo. IV. (1828), c. 31, s. 3, it is now expressly enacted, that every person convicted of murder shall suffer death as a felon.

[In atrocious cases, it was, at one time, usual also for the court to direct the murderer, after execution, to be hung upon a gibbet in chains near the place where the crime was committed ; and the legality of a direction that the body should be *hung in chains* was declared by the Murder Act, 1751, and 9 Geo. IV. (1828), c. 31. This practice of hanging in chains seems to have been borrowed, not from the Mosaical law (which expressly forbade it) (*t*), but from the civil law, which, besides the terror of the example, gives also another reason, viz., that it is a comfortable sight to the relations and friends of the

(*s*) 23 Hen. 8 (1531), c. 1 ; 1 Edw. 6 (1547), c. 12 ; 4 & 5 Ph. & M. (1557), c. 4.

(*t*) Deut. xxi. 22.

[deceased (*u*). By the Murder Act, 1751, moreover, *dissection* was required to be,—and by the 9 Geo. IV. (1828), c. 31, might be,—a part of the sentence; and by the same statutes, the judge, in passing sentence, was to direct the offender to be executed on the next day but one after that on which the sentence was passed, unless that day should happen to be a Sunday, and then on the Monday following.] But these severities were successively laid aside (*x*); and it has now been provided, by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 2, that sentence of death, on every conviction for murder, shall be pronounced and carried into execution, in the same manner as for other crimes which were capital before the Act. At the time of this statute, all executions took place in public; but by the Capital Punishment Amendment Act, 1868, public executions were abolished, and it was thereby enacted, that the judgment of death, to be executed on any prisoner *for murder*, should be carried into effect within the walls of the prison in which he was confined at the time of execution, in the presence only of the sheriff, gaoler, chaplain, surgeon, and such other officers of the prison as the sheriff required, and of such magistrates of the prison jurisdiction as chose to be present, and of such relatives of the prisoner, or other persons as the sheriff or visiting justices should think proper to admit. And, a coroner's jury having first found the fact of death, the body of the offender (subject to the discretion of a secretary of state) is to be buried within the prison precincts.

[By the Roman law, PARRICIDE (or the murder of one's relatives) was punished in a much severer manner than any other kind of homicide; for, after being scourged, the delinquent was sewed up in a leathern sack, with a live dog, a cock, a viper, and an ape, and so cast into the sea (*y*). Solon, however, made no specific law

(*u*) Dig. 48, 19, 28, s. 15.

(*x*) Anatomy Act, 1832, s. 16; and 4 & 5 Will. 4 (1834), c. 26.

(*y*) Dig. 41, 9, 9.

[against parricide, apprehending it impossible that anyone should be guilty of so unnatural a barbarity (z) ; and the Persians, (according to Herodotus,) entertained the same notion, when they adjudged all persons who killed their reputed parents to be bastards (a). And in like manner our laws have made no specific provision with regard to this crime, so as to distinguish it, in any respect, from that of murder ; and yet formerly, where a servant killed his master, a wife her husband, or an ecclesiastical person, (either secular or regular,) his superior to whom he owed faith and obedience (b), this was accounted a species of treason, called *parva proditio*, or petit treason (c). And hence it followed, that in the particular case, also, where a parricide was committed by one who happened to stand in the relation of servant to his parent, he was adjudged guilty of petit treason, though the crime was so ranked under no other circumstances (d). For all these cases involved, in contemplation of law, not only murder, but murder aggravated by a species of treason, on account of the violation of private allegiance (e) ; and in the antient Gothic constitutions, this breach of both natural and civil relations was ranked in the same class with crimes against the state and the sovereign (f). Nor was the distinction merely nominal, the punishment in petit treason being more severe than in the case of murder : for if the offender was a man, the sentence was that he should be drawn to the place of execution, and then hanged, and, if a woman, that she should be so drawn and then burned to death (g).] But the crime itself of petit treason, as distinct from ordinary murder, is now abolished ; it being provided by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 8, that any

(z) Cic. *pro S. Roscio*, s. 25.
(a) Book i., c. 137.
(b) 1 Hale, P. C. 381.
(c) Treason Act, 1351 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 380.
(d) Hale, *ubi sup.*
(e) Fost. 107, 324, 336.
(f) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 2, c. 3.
(g) 1 Hale, P. C. 382 ; 3 Inst. 211.

killing which amounted to that offence before the 9 Geo. IV. (1828), c. 31, shall now be deemed to be murder only, and no greater offence.

II. *Attempt to murder.*—Not only the crime of actual murder, but attempting to commit murder, amounted till recently, in some cases, to a capital felony (*h*). But the attempt to murder is no longer punishable with death under any circumstances ; for, by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 11, whoever with intent *to commit murder* (*i*) shall administer (or cause to be administered) to any person poison or other destructive thing (*k*),—or who shall by any means whatever wound any person or cause him grievous bodily harm,—shall be guilty of felony, and on conviction may be sentenced to penal servitude for life, or for not less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment for any term not exceeding two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement (*l*). And (by sect. 14) whoever shall *attempt* to administer to or shall attempt to cause to be administered to or to be taken by any person poison or other destructive thing, or who shall shoot at any person (*m*), or who shall by drawing a trigger or in any other manner attempt to discharge any kind of loaded arms at any person, or who shall attempt to drown, suffocate, or strangle any person, with intent, in any of the cases aforesaid, to commit murder, shall (whether any bodily injury be in fact effected or not) be guilty of felony, and liable to the same punishments as above mentioned. And (by sect. 13) whoever shall set fire to, cast away, or destroy, any ship or vessel, and (by sect. 12) whoever by the explosion of gunpowder, or other explosive substance, shall destroy or damage any

(*h*) 7 Will. 4 & 1 Vict. (1837), c. 85, s. 2.

(*i*) *R.* v. *Cruse* (1838), 8 Car. & P. 541.

(*k*) *R.* v. *Michael* (1840), 9 Car. & P. 356.

(*l*) Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1.

(*m*) *R* v. *Smith* (1855), 25 L. J. M. C. 29.

building, with intent to commit murder, shall be liable to be similarly punished. Moreover, the same Act (sect. 15) contains a general provision making it felony (and awarding the same punishments as already mentioned) for any person to attempt to commit murder, by any means other than those above specified ; and even maliciously to send (knowing its contents) any letter or writing *threatening* to kill or murder any person, is (by sect. 16) a felony, punishable by imprisonment as above, with or without the addition of whipping, if the offender be a male under sixteen, or by the alternative sentence of penal servitude to the extent of ten years or for not less than five (now three) years.

An attempt to commit suicide is not an attempt to commit murder within the meaning of the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, but is, as has been already said, an indictable misdemeanor at common law (*n*).

III. *Conspiracy to murder.*—This offence was, at common law, merely punishable by fine and imprisonment ; but, now, by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 4, all persons who shall conspire, confederate, and agree to murder any person, whether he be a subject of his Majesty or not, or within his dominions or not, or shall solicit, encourage, persuade, or propose to any person to murder any other person, whether a subject or not, or whether he be within the King's dominions or not, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor punishable by penal servitude for not more than ten nor less than five (now three) years, or by imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for any term not exceeding two years (*o*).

[IV. *Acts causing, or tending to cause, danger to life or bodily harm.—Mayhem*,—depriving another of the use of

(*n*) *R.* v. *Elizabeth Burgess* (1862), 32 L. J. M. C. 55.

(*o*) *R.* v. *Bernard* (1858), 8 St. Tri. (N.S.) 887 ; *R.* v. *Most* (1881), 7 Q. B. D. 244.

[his fighting members,—whereby he is the less able, in fighting, either to defend himself or to annoy his adversary, —besides being a civil injury, is also a heinous crime ; and by the antient law of England, he that maimed any man, whereby he lost any part of his body, was sentenced to lose the like,—*membrum pro membro* (*p*),—a species of the *lex talionis*. But this punishment went out of use ; so that by the common law, as it for a long time stood, mayhem was only punishable by fine and imprisonment (*q*), with the exception, however, of the offence of mayhem by castration, which all our old writers held to be felony ; "*et sequitur aliquando pœna capitalis, aliquando* "*perpetuum exilium cum omnium bonorum ademptione*" (*r*). And this, although the mayhem was committed on the highest provocation (*s*).] By different statutes, however, viz., the 5 Hen. IV. (1403), c. 5, the 37 Hen. VIII. (1545), c. 6, and the 22 & 23 Car. II. (1670), c. 1 (*t*), specific provisions were, in course of time, made against the offence of maiming, cutting off, or disabling a limb or member (*u*). All these statutes have now been repealed, and the provision now in force, viz., the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, by ss. 18, 20, enacts, that whoever shall unlawfully and maliciously, by any means whatever, wound (*x*) any person, or cause him grievous bodily harm, or shoot at any person (*y*), or by drawing a trigger or in any other manner attempt to discharge any kind of loaded arms at any person, with intent in any of the above cases *to maim*,

(*p*) 3 Inst. 118 ; Britt. c. 25 ; 4 Bl. Com. 206.

(*q*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 44, s. 3.

(*r*) Br. l. 3, tr. 2, c. 23.

(*s*) 3 Inst. 62, citing Claus. 13 Hen. 3, m. 9.

(*t*) This Act is sometimes called the Coventry Act, from Sir John Coventry, M.P.

(*u*) See *Coke and Woodburn's Trial* (1722), 16 St. Tri. 53, in which the defence was that the assault was committed with intent not to maim but to murder !

(*x*) As to the meaning of "wound," see *R.* v. *McLoughlin* (1838), 8 Car. & P. 635 ; *R.* v. *Smith* (1837), *id.* 173.

(*y*) *R.* v. *Smith* (1855), 25 L. J. M. C. 29.

disfigure, or disable, or to do some other grievous bodily harm to any person, or with intent *to resist or prevent the lawful apprehension or detaining of any person*, shall be guilty of felony, and be liable to the same punishment as for an attempt to murder ; and further, that, even without either of such intents being proved (z), whoever shall unlawfully and maliciously wound or inflict grievous bodily harm upon any other person, either with or without a weapon or instrument, shall be guilty of a *misdemeanor*, and be liable to penal servitude for five (now three) years, or imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding two years. Moreover, (by sect. 28) whoever shall unlawfully and maliciously, by the explosion of gunpowder or other explosive substance, burn, maim, disfigure, disable, or do any grievous bodily harm to any person, shall be guilty of felony, and be punishable as for an attempt to murder, with the addition of *whipping*, if the offender be a male under the age of sixteen, and the court shall so direct. By section 29, the same penal consequences will attach to any one who shall unlawfully and maliciously cause gunpowder or other explosive substance to explode, or who shall send or deliver to, or cause to be received or taken by, any person, any explosive substance or other offensive dangerous or noxious thing, or who shall put or lay at any place, or cast or throw at or on, or otherwise apply to, any person, corrosive fluid, or other destructive or explosive substance, with intent (in any of the above cases) to burn, maim, disfigure, or disable any person, or to do him some grievous bodily harm, *whether any bodily injury be effected or not*. And (by sect. 30) the same punishment, except that the term of penal servitude may not exceed fourteen years, may be inflicted on any one who shall unlawfully and maliciously place, or throw, in, into, upon, against, or near any building, ship, or vessel, gunpowder or other explosive

(z) *R.* v. *Martin* (1881), 8 Q. B. D. 54; 51 L. J. M. C. 36 14 Cox C. C. 633.

substance, with intent to do bodily injury to any person, *whether an explosion take place or bodily injury be inflicted or not*. Moreover, (by sects. 21, 22) whosoever, with intent to *enable himself or any other person to commit*, or to *assist another person in committing, any indictable offence*, shall, by any means whatsoever, attempt to choke, suffocate, or strangle another person, or shall, by means calculated to choke, suffocate, or strangle, attempt to render any other person, insensible, unconscious, or incapable of resistance, or shall unlawfully apply or administer to, or cause to be taken by, or attempt to apply or administer to, or attempt to cause to be administered to or taken by, any person, chloroform, laudanum, or other stupefying or overpowering drug, matter, or thing,—shall be guilty of felony, and be punishable as for an attempt to murder, with the addition of *whipping* if the offender be a male, and the court shall so direct (*a*). And (by sect. 17) whoever shall unlawfully and maliciously prevent or impede any person on board of (or having quitted) a ship or vessel in distress, wrecked, or stranded, in his endeavour to save his life, or who shall prevent or impede any one in his endeavour to save the life of any such person on board or escaping from such vessel, shall be guilty of felony, and be punishable as for an attempt to murder. And (by sect. 23) the same penalties (except that the extreme limit of the term of penal servitude is ten years instead of life) are attached to the felony of unlawfully and maliciously administering, or causing to be administered, to any one, poison or other destructive or noxious thing, so as thereby to endanger his life or inflict on him grievous bodily harm. And (by sect. 24) such administration, although in fact neither life be endangered nor grievous harm inflicted, yet if with intent *to injure, aggrieve, or annoy* such person, is a *misdemeanor*, and made punishable with penal servitude for five (now three) years, or imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for not more than two years.

(*a*) Garrotters Act, 1863.

V. *Procuring miscarriage, and concealment of birth.*—To kill a child in the mother's womb is (as we have already mentioned) no murder; for although at one period, by a statute of George the Third, it was a capital felony to administer a destructive thing to procure the miscarriage of a woman quick with child, while, even if she was not quick with child, the offence was punishable with transportation (*b*), yet, by a later statute (*c*), the nature of the offence and the punishment for it were made no longer to turn on the fact of being or not being *quick* with child, but in all cases, penal servitude for life might be awarded. The offence is now regulated by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 58, which awards the term of penal servitude for life, or for a term not less than five (now three) years (*d*), or imprisonment (with or without hard labour and solitary confinement) for a term not exceeding two years, to any woman who, being with child, shall, with intent to procure her own miscarriage, unlawfully administer to herself poison or other noxious thing or use any instrument or other means for that purpose; or to any person whomsoever, who with a similar intent, shall unlawfully administer to a woman (whether she be with child or not), or cause to be taken by her, poison or other noxious thing (*e*), or who shall use any instrument or other means, with intent to procure her miscarriage. And all such practices are declared to be felonies. And (by sect. 59) whosoever shall unlawfully supply or procure any such poison, thing or instrument, knowing that the same is intended to be unlawfully used or employed to procure the miscarriage of a woman, whether she be with child or not, is guilty of a misdemeanor, and punishable with penal servitude for five (now three) years, or imprisonment, with or without hard

(*b*) 43 Geo. 3 (1802), c. 58; 9 Geo. 4 (1828), c. 31, s. 13.

(*c*) 7 Will. 4 & 1 Vict. (1837), c. 85, s. 6.

(*d*) Penal Servitude Act, 1891 s. 1.

(*e*) *R.* v. *Cramp* (1880), 5 Q. B. D. 307.

labour, not exceeding two years. And (by sect. 60) it is also a misdemeanor, punishable with imprisonment as just mentioned, for any person by secret disposition (*f*) of the dead body of a child whereof a woman has been delivered, to endeavour to *conceal* its birth, whether it died before or afterwards. Indeed, at one period, if the child would have been a bastard, and its mother endeavoured to conceal her delivery of it by putting away the body or the like, it was *murder*, unless she proved that the child was born dead (*g*).

VI. *Abduction of females.*—One species of this offence, viz., stealing an heiress, or forcibly carrying off any woman, "having substance in goods or lands, or being "heir apparent to her ancestor" (the same being followed by her marriage or defilement), was made a capital felony by the 3 Hen. VII. (1487), c. 2, 4 & 5 Ph. & M. (1557), c. 8, and 39 Eliz. (1597), c. 9. But these enactments are repealed: and the existing provision on this subject is contained in the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861. The 53rd section enacts, that where a woman *of any age* shall have any interest, legal or equitable, present or future, absolute, conditional, or contingent, in any real or personal estate, or shall be an heiress presumptive, or coheiress, or presumptive next of kin to a person having such interest, it shall be felony in anyone who shall, *from motives of lucre* (*h*), take away or detain her against her will, with intent to marry or carnally know her, or to cause her to be married or carnally known by any other person. And the same section makes it a felony in any one who (*with a like intent*) fraudulently allures, takes away, or detains a woman in such position *under the age of twenty-one years*, out of the possession and against the will of her father or

(*f*) *R.* v. *Brown* (1870), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 244.

(*g*) 21 Jac. I (1623), c. 27; repealed by 43 Geo. 3 (1802), c. 58, s. 3.

(*h*) *R.* v. *Barratt* (1840), 9 Car. & P. 387.

mother, or other person having lawful care or charge of her (*i*). The offender (in any of the above cases) is punishable by penal servitude for fourteen years, or not less than five (now three) years, or by imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding two years; and he is, moreover, made incapable of taking any of her estate, interest, or property, which (if marriage has taken place) is to be settled in such manner as shall be appointed by the court. The same punishments are also awarded, where anyone *by force* takes away or detains against her will *any* woman of *any* age, with intent to marry or defile her (*k*). Unlawfully to take or cause to be taken out of the possession and against the will of her parents or guardian (although without any such intent as aforesaid) (*l*) an unmarried girl *under the age of sixteen* is punishable as a misdemeanor with imprisonment to the extent of two years, with or without hard labour; and in such a case, the girl's *consent* is immaterial, nor is it a defence that the person charged *bonâ fide* and reasonably believed her to have been of or above the age of sixteen years (*m*).

The Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885, contains also further and more stringent provisions for the protection of females generally. For, besides the provisions against the DEFILEMENT OF CHILDREN which are hereinafter referred to, the Act has provided, with reference to *abduction*, as follows: (1) By sections 2 and 3, the procuration or attempted procuration of any virtuous female under the age of *twenty-one years* (although it may be for but one act of depravity) is a misdemeanor punishable with imprisonment not exceeding two years, with or without

(*i*) *R.* v. *Burrell* (1863), 33 L. J. M. C. 54.

(*k*) Offences against the Person Act, 1861, s. 54.

(*l*) *Ibid.* s. 55; *R.* v. *Meadows* (1844), 1 Car. & K. 399; *Mankletow's Case* (1853), Dears. C. C. 159; *R.* v. *Timmins* (1860), 9 W. R. 36; 30 L. J. M. C. 45.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Prince* (1875), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 154; 44 L. J. M. C. 122.

hard labour; and the use of duress, false pretences, or of stupefying drugs to effect the purpose aforesaid is a misdemeanor and punishable with the like punishment; (2) By sect. 7, the abduction of any girl under *eighteen years of age*, with the intent that she shall be carnally known is a misdemeanor, and punishable with imprisonment as aforesaid; but in this case it is a good defence to show, that the person charged had reasonable cause to believe that the girl was not under eighteen; and (3) By sect. 8, the detaining of *any female* against her will on any premises with intent to have, or that another person may have, carnal knowledge of her, is a misdemeanor, and punishable with imprisonment as aforesaid.

VII. [Another offence against females, and one which is attended with greater aggravations even than that of abduction or forcible marriage, is the crime of RAPE (*raptus mulierum*), that is, the having carnal knowledge of a woman forcibly and against her will (*n*), *i.e.*, without her consent. This offence was, by the Jewish law, punished with death, in case the damsel was betrothed to another man, and with the heavy fine of fifty shekels in case she was not so betrothed; and in the latter case, she was also to be the wife of her ravisher all the days of his life, without his having the right of divorce which was permitted by the Mosaic law (*o*). The civil law punished the crime with death and confiscation of goods; and, according to that law, rape or ravishment included both the offence of forcible abduction, and also the offence of forcible dishonour, either of which offences, without the other, was a capital crime (*p*). The stealing away of a woman from her parents or guardians and debauching her, was, by the emperor's edict, made equally penal whether she consented or not; the edict apparently assuming that

(*n*) *R.* v. *Fletcher* (1866), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 39.

(*o*) Deut. xxii. 25.

(*p*) Cod. L. ix. tit. 13.

[by so restraining and making so highly penal the solicitations of the male, it would secure effectually the honour of the female. But our law does not entertain quite the same idea of either sex, or lay the blame of a mutual fault upon one of them exclusively; and therefore, with us, the crime of rape is only where the female consenteth not. And her want of consent (*q*) may be constructive, where it is not otherwise apparent.

By the Saxon laws (particularly those of king Athelstan), the offence of rape was punishable with death (*r*), agreeably to the old Gothic or Scandinavian constitution (*s*). But that punishment being afterwards thought too hard, another severe, but not capital, punishment was inflicted in its stead, by William the Conqueror, viz., castration and loss of eyes (*t*). This continued till after Bracton wrote, in the reign of Henry the Third; but in order to prevent malicious accusations, the Conqueror required (*u*), that the woman should, immediately (*dum recens fuerit maleficium*), go to the next town and there (*pudore non obstante*) make discovery to some credible persons of the injury she had suffered, acquainting also the high constable of the hundred, the coroners, and the sheriff, of the outrage (*x*), for all which she was subsequently allowed an extension of time, to wit, forty days (*y*). But (subject to the allowance of the judge) the woman might, with her parents' consent, redeem the offender from the execution of his sentence, by accepting him for her husband, he on his part being willing to accept her (*z*). In the reign of Edward the First, the punishment of rape was somewhat mitigated. For, by the Statute

(*q*) Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885, s. 4, which gets rid of the decision in *R.* v. *Barrow* (1868), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 156.

(*r*) Bracton, l. iii. c. 28.

(*s*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. iii. c. 2.

(*t*) LL. Guil. Conqu. c. 19.

(*u*) 1 Hale, P. C. 632.

(*x*) Glanv. l. xiv. c. 6; Bract. l. iii. c. 28.

(*y*) 3 Edw. 1 (1275), c. 13.

(*z*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 41, s. 7.

[of Westm. I. (1275), c. 13, the ravishing of a damsel within the age of *twelve* years, either with her consent or without, or of any female above that age against her will, required to be prosecuted within forty days; otherwise, the offence became a civil trespass merely, subjecting the offender to two years' imprisonment and a fine at the king's will. But by the Statute of Westm. II. (1285), c. 34, the offence was declared to be and continue a felony; and so the law appears to have long remained, the offence being, however, a clergyable one, until by the 18 Eliz. (1575), c. 7, it was made a felony without benefit of clergy.]

But the offence is not now capital; and the crime, and the punishment therefor, are now defined and provided for by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, as amended by the Penal Servitude Act, 1891. Under the provisions of these statutes, rape is a felony, and the offender is liable to be kept in penal servitude for life, or for any term not less than three years, or to be imprisoned for any term not exceeding two years, with or without hard labour.

[An infant under the age of fourteen years is presumed by law incapable of committing the crime of rape, and therefore cannot be found guilty of it (*a*), nor even of the attempt (*b*), though he may be a principal in the second degree, and punished for being present, aiding and abetting, or again he may be convicted of an indecent assault. For though in other felonies *malitia supplet ætatem*, yet in this particular species of felony, the law supposes an immaturity of body which cannot be supplied by any precocity of mind (*c*).

The civil law supposed a prostitute, or common harlot, incapable of being raped (*d*); and inflicted no punishment

(*a*) *R.* v. *Jordan* (1839), 9 Car. & P. 118.

(*b*) *R.* v. *Eldershaw* (1828), 3 Car. & P. 396; *R.* v. *Waite*, [1892] 2 Q. B. 600; *R.* v. *Williams*, [1893] 1 Q. B. 320.

(*c*) 1 Hale, P. C. 631.

(*d*) Cod. 9, 9, 22; Dig. 47, 2, 39.

[for violating the chastity of her who had no chastity to violate. But the law of England does not so judge even of common strumpets, and therefore holds it to be a felony to *force* even a concubine or harlot (*e*); for, as Bracton well observes, "*licet meretrix fuerit antea, certe tunc mere-*" *trix non fuit, cum reclamando nequitiæ ejus consentire* " *noluit*" (*f*).

As regards the evidence upon an indictment for rape, the party ravished may, like other accusers, give evidence upon oath, and is in law a competent witness; but the credibility of her testimony, and how far she is to be believed, must be left to the jury upon all the circumstances of the case. For example, if the woman be of good fame, or if she presently discover the offence and make search for the offender, or if the offender flee,—these circumstances give greater probability to her evidence. On the other hand, if she be of evil fame, or if she stand unsupported by others, or if she conceal the injury for a considerable time, or if the place where the offence is alleged to have been committed be one where she might have been heard if she had cried out, and she made no outcry, or was not heard to cry,—these and the like circumstances carry a strong *primâ facie* presumption that her testimony is false.] It is now decided (*g*) that in cases of rape and kindred offences against women and girls, the prosecution may prove not only the fact that the prosecutrix made a complaint, but also the actual terms of the complaint (though this might otherwise be excluded as hearsay); not as evidence of the facts alleged, but as proof of the consistency of the conduct of the prosecutrix. Also, although the woman is competent to give evidence against the prisoner, and so is liable to be cross-examined, still it is said she is not compellable, on her cross-examination, to answer as to any specific previous acts of depravity

(*e*) 1 Hale, P. C. 628; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 41, s. 2.

(*f*) L. 3, c. 27.

(*g*) *R.* v. *Lillyman*, [1896] 2 Q. B. 167.

on her part with other men (*h*). And if she, when asked, denies having had intercourse with other men, the prisoner or his counsel may not call evidence to contradict her (*i*), although her credibility may be impugned by evidence showing that the accused himself had connection with her before the alleged rape (*k*), or that her character for chastity or decency is notoriously bad (*l*). Where the female upon whom the rape is alleged to have been committed is a young child, [she is still a competent witness, provided she have or appear to have sense and understanding to know the nature and obligation of an oath, or even to be sensible of the wickedness of telling a deliberate lie; and Sir M. Hale thought, that she ought to be heard in any case, although it should be without oath, to give the court information (*m*).] And now, by section 4 of the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885 (in prosecutions for the offence of unlawfully and carnally knowing, or attempting to know, any girl under the age of thirteen), the unsworn evidence of a child of tender years who, in the opinion of the court, does not understand the nature of an oath, but still is intelligent, and understands the duty of speaking the truth, may be received; but before the accused is liable to be convicted, such unsworn testimony must be corroborated by other material evidence (*n*).

VIII. We shall next mention the crime of *Defiling Children*; which offence is, according to the circumstances, either a felony or a misdemeanor. Formerly, it was a felony and punishable with penal servitude for life, or not less than five years, or imprisonment (with or

(*h*) *R.* v. *Hodgson* (1812), Russ. & R. 211.

(*i*) *R.* v. *Holmes* (1871), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 334.

(*k*) *R.* v. *Martin* (1834), 6 Car. & P. 562.

(*l*) 2 Stark. *Ev.* 3rd ed., 305; *R.* v. *Riley* (1887), 18 Q. B. D. 481.

(*m*) 1 Hale, P. C. 634.

(*n*) There appears to be no determinate age at which the oath of a child ought either to be admitted or rejected; *R.* v. *Brasier* (1779), 1 Leach, 199.

without hard labour) for not more than two years, unlawfully and carnally to know and abuse any girl *under the age of twelve years* (*o*). And, secondly, it was a misdemeanor and punishable with imprisonment (with or without hard labour) to the extent of two years, so to know and abuse any girl *above the age of twelve and under the age of thirteen*, whether with or without her consent (*p*); and in either case, the accused might be convicted of the *attempt* to have carnal knowledge or of an *indecent assault*, and that whether the female consented or not (*q*). But now these limits of age have been raised by the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885, already referred to in connection with the *abduction* of females. Sections 4 and 5 provide, that it shall be a felony to have actual carnal connection *with a girl under thirteen years of age*, and a misdemeanor to attempt to have connection with her; and that it shall be a misdemeanor to have carnal connection (or even to attempt such connection) with a girl *between thirteen and sixteen years of age*, or with any idiot or imbecile female. And in none of these cases does the consent (or even the enticement) of the other party relieve the male offender (*r*), or reduce or modify the measure or the character of his punishment; which, in the case of the felony, may be either penal servitude for life or for any period not less than three years, or imprisonment (with or without hard labour) for two years, with (for boys under sixteen years of age) whipping; and in the case of the misdemeanor, is imprisonment. It is, however, a sufficient defence *to the misdemeanor* for the accused to show that he had reasonable cause to believe that the girl was of or above the age of sixteen. Moreover, by section 6, any householder or owner who knowingly

(*o*) Offences Against the Person Act, 1875, s. 3.

(*p*) *Ibid.* s. 4.

(*q*) Offences Against the Person Act, 1861; s. 52; Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1880; *R.* v. *Williams*, [1893] 1 Q. B. 320.

(*r*) *R.* v. *Tyrrell*, [1894] 1 Q. B. 710.

allows on his premises the commission of either of the offences, is guilty of a felony or of a misdemeanor, according to the complexion of the principal offence itself, and is punishable accordingly (*s*).

IX. [*Kidnapping, and Child Stealing.*—The forcible stealing away of man, woman, or child from their own country, and sending them into another, was capital by the Jewish (*t*), and also by the civil law (*u*). This is unquestionably a very heinous crime, as it robs the king of his subjects, and may, in its consequences, be productive of the most cruel and disagreeable hardships; and the common law of England punished it with fine, imprisonment, and pillory (*x*).] Under the provisions at present in force, contained in the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 56, whosoever shall unlawfully, either by force or fraud, and without any *bonâ fide* claim of right to the possession of the child, lead, take, decoy, or entice away, or detain any child under the age of *fourteen* years, with intent to deprive the parent, guardian, or other person having the lawful care or charge of such child, of its possession, or with intent to steal any article on its person, or who shall, with any such intent as aforesaid, receive or harbour such child, knowing it to have been so stolen or enticed, shall be guilty of felony, and shall be liable to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than five (now three) years, or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not more than two years, and also (if a boy under the age of sixteen) to be whipped. All these provisions are, of course, additional to those above stated, with regard to the *abduction of females* and the *defilement of children*.

X. *The Abandonment of Young Children.*—This is an offence which was first provided for by the Offences

(*s*) *R.* v. *Webster* (1885), 16 Q. B. D. 134.
(*t*) Exod. xxi. 16.
(*u*) Dig. 48. 15, 1.
(*x*) Raym. 474; 2 Show. 221; Skin. 47.

Against the Person Act, 1861. Section 27 enacts, that whoever shall unlawfully abandon or expose any child under the age of two years, in such manner as that its life shall be endangered, or its health be, or be likely to be, permanently injured, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and punishable by penal servitude for five (now three) years, or imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for a term not exceeding two years (*y*). And now the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1894 (the provisions of which are set out more in detail hereafter under the head of offences against morals) (*z*), imposes severe punishments for the wilful assault, ill-treatment, neglect, abandonment, or exposure of any child under the age of sixteen years, in cases where the cruelty is likely to cause the child unnecessary suffering or injury to health. And with a view to the better protection of infant life, the Infant Life Protection Act, 1897 (repealing a former statute of 1872 in the same matter), enacts, that any person who retains or receives for hire or reward more than one infant under the age of five years, for the purpose of nursing or maintaining such infants apart from their parents, for a longer period than forty-eight hours, shall within the forty-eight hours give notice thereof to the local authority, the notice specifying the name, age, and sex of each of the infants, the name of the person receiving and the house in which the infants are received (sect. 1) ; and the local authority must fix the number of infants under the age of five years that may be received in any particular house (sect. 4). It has been further enacted, that any person receiving (for a lump sum not exceeding 20*l.*) any infant under the age of two years, without any agreement for further payments for the up-bringing of the child, must within forty-eight hours give notice to the local authority ; and for failure to give the notice, the money received is forfeited

(*y*) *R.* v. *Gray* (1857), 26 L. J. M. C. 203; *R.* v. *White* (1871), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 311.

(*z*) *Post*, pp. 215—217.

for the benefit of the child, and the child may be removed to the workhouse (sect. 5). The local authority (by means of female inspectors and otherwise) is to exercise a supervision over all the houses referred to in the Act in which such children are received and retained, to ensure that they are not over-crowded, and are kept clean and fit (sect. 7).

XI. *Unlawfully endangering Railway Passengers.*—By the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, ss. 32, 33, whoever unlawfully and maliciously puts or throws on or across a railway any wood, stone, or other thing; or displaces any rail, sleeper, or other thing; or turns any point of machinery belonging to a railway; or shows, hides, or removes any signal or light; or does any other thing with *intent to endanger the safety* of any person travelling or being on such railway, or throws against or into a railway engine or carriage any wood, stone, or other thing with a similar intent, is guilty of felony, and liable to penal servitude for life, or not less than five (now three) years, or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not exceeding two years, and (if a male under sixteen years of age) to be whipped. And (by sect. 34) whoever, by any unlawful act or wilful omission or neglect, endangers or causes to be endangered, or aids or assists in endangering or in causing to be endangered, the safety of any person conveyed by or being on a railway, is guilty of a misdemeanor, and punishable by imprisonment, with or without hard labour, to the extent of two years. Corresponding punishments are inflicted by sections 35, 36, of the Malicious Damage Act, 1861, if the intent with which the acts are done is to overthrow or damage an engine or carriage (*a*).

XII. *Setting Spring-guns or Engines to destroy or injure Trespassers.*—By the Offences Against the Person

(*a*) *R.* v. *Bradford* (1860), 29 L. J. M. C. 171; 8 Cox C. C. 309.

Act, 1861, s. 31, whoever shall set or place, or cause to be set or placed, any spring-gun, man-trap, or other engine calculated to destroy human life, or to inflict grievous bodily harm, *with intent to destroy such life or inflict such harm*, upon a trespasser or other person coming in contact therewith, is guilty of a misdemeanor, and punishable with penal servitude for five (now three) years, or imprisonment, with or without hard labour, to the extent of two years. But this enactment does not extend to gins or traps usually set with the intent of destroying vermin; or to spring-guns, man-traps, or other engines, set in a dwelling-house, for the protection thereof, from sunset to sunrise (*b*).

XIII. *Assaults, Batteries, and False Imprisonments*, in their CRIMINAL aspect, are the next offences to be considered; and in that aspect,—that is, regarded as a breach of the peace,—a common *assault*, even though not occasioning any actual bodily harm, is a misdemeanor, and is punishable with imprisonment with or without hard labour, to the extent of one year, while, if it occasion actual bodily harm, it is punishable with penal servitude for three years, or imprisonment to the extent of two years, with or without hard labour (*c*). And certain assaults are punished in a still severer manner, if they are committed with any atrocious design; as, for example, in the case of an assault with intent to murder, in which latter case penal servitude *for life* may be awarded. Moreover, a variety of assaults of different kinds are provided against by particular enactments; *e.g.*, assaults on workhouse officials and relieving officers, by the Poor Law Amendment Act, 1850, assaults on constables, by the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, s. 12,

(*b*) *Hott* v. *Wilkes* (1820), 3 Barn. & Ald. 304; *Jordin* v. *Crump* (1841), 8 M. & W. 782; *Wootton* v. *Dawkins* (1857), 2 C. B. (N.S.) 412.

(*c*) Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 47; Penal Servitude Act, 1891.

and, by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, an assault on a magistrate, or on any other person in lawful authority, while preserving *wreck* or goods cast on shore, is made a misdemeanor punishable with penal servitude to the extent of seven years, or imprisonment to the extent of two years, at the discretion of the court (*d*). By section 36 of the same statute, to obstruct or assault a clergyman while in the discharge of the duties of his calling; or (by sect. 38) to assault any person with intent to commit a felony, or to assault or resist, or wilfully to obstruct a peace officer in the due execution of his duty; or (by sect. 52) to assault any female indecently,—are all made punishable by two years' imprisonment, with or without hard labour, even though no actual bodily harm may have been occasioned. And here we may observe generally, that (by sect. 42) assaults which amount only to *common assaults* may be disposed of by the justices of the peace sitting at petty sessions, in the exercise of their summary jurisdiction, and not by way of indictment; and when so disposed of, the punishment is of a lighter description, and consists of a fine not exceeding 5*l*., or imprisonment (with or without hard labour) to the extent of two months. Moreover (by sect. 43) some species of *aggravated* assaults may also be so heard and determined, the fine in such cases being a fine not exceeding 20*l*., and the imprisonment extending to six months.

XIV. *Bigamy* (*e*), which consists in going through the form of a second marriage by one who has a former husband or wife still living (*f*), is the next offence to be considered; and although [such second marriage is simply

(*d*) Sect. 37.

(*e*) "Bigamy," according to the canonists, consisted in marrying two *virgins* successively, one after the death of the other; or in marrying a widow. And the offence was at one time not clergyable. See 4 Edw. 1 (Stat. de Bigamis); but by 1 Edw. 6 (1547), c. 12, s. 16, *bigamy* was declared to be no longer an impediment to the claim of clergy (Dal. 21; Dy. 201).

(*f*) 3 Inst. 88.

[void, and a mere nullity, by the ecclesiastical law of England, yet the legislature has thought fit to make this offence felony, as being so great a violation of the public economy and decency of a well-ordered state, and because of the evil consequences which would inevitably ensue from its being otherwise dealt with. Bigamy, which is, in fact, a species of polygamy, can never be endured under any rational civil establishment, whatever specious reasons may be urged for it by the eastern nations; and our courts do not even recognize a bigamous or polygamous marriage as valid, which has been contracted in a country where polygamy is lawful, and by persons professing the Mahommedan faith (*g*). In northern countries, the very nature of the climate reclaims against the practice of bigamy; and it never obtained even among our German ancestors, who, as Tacitus informs us, "*prope soli barbarorum, singulis uxoribus contenti sunt*" (*h*)]. At the present day, by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 57, whosoever, being married, shall marry any other person during the life of the former husband or wife, whether the second marriage shall have taken place in England, Ireland, or elsewhere, is guilty of felony; and this is so, although the second marriage should be within the prohibited degrees of affinity (*i*). And every one offending in this particular is liable to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than three years, or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for not more than two years.

It is interesting to note, that upon a prosecution for bigamy, the first wife cannot be admitted as a witness against her husband, because she is the true wife, but the second wife may, because she is no wife (*k*); and so,

(*g*) *Hyde* v. *Hyde and Woodmansee* (1866), L. R. 1 P. & D. 130; *Bethell* v. *Hildyard* (1888), 38 Ch. D. 220.

(*h*) *De Mor. Germ.* 18.

(*i*) *R.* v. *Allen* (1872), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 367.

(*k*) 1 Hale, P. C. 693; 1 East, P. C. c. 12, s. 9; *Peat's Case* (1838), 2 Lew. C. C. 288.]

vice versâ, of a second husband. Also, in order to secure a conviction, it is necessary to prove that the first marriage was duly solemnized (*l*), mere proof of cohabitation not being sufficient (*m*). And it is further to be observed, that, with regard to marriages out of the United Kingdom solemnized between persons not being subjects of the Crown, our law has no jurisdiction to deal with such offenders (*n*). Where a husband or a wife has been continually absent for the space of seven years immediately preceding the second marriage, and is not known to be living within that time by the party marrying, the offence is not bigamy (*o*) ; and a second marriage contracted even within the period of seven years' absence, if there was reasonable ground for presuming the death, is not bigamy (*p*). But, of course, if the former husband or wife is not really dead, then, unless the former marriage has been legally dissolved, the second marriage is *void*.

XV. The last offence to which we shall refer in this chapter, as it not only amounts in many instances to an incitement to break the peace, but is also an offence against personal rights, is the *publication of a libel*. By the Libel Act, 1843 (as amended by the Libel Act, 1845), if any person shall publish (or threaten to publish) any libel upon any other person, or shall directly or indirectly propose to abstain from printing or publishing, or offer to prevent the printing or publishing, of any matter touching any other person, *with intent to extort any money*, security for money, or valuable thing from such person or any other, or with intent to induce any person to confer or procure any appointment or office of profit or

(*l*) *R.* v. *Cresswell* (1876), 1 Q. B. D. 446.

(*m*) *R.* v. *James* (1802), Russ. & R. 17 ; *R.* v. *Morton* (1789), *ib.* 19 ; *R.* v. *Butler* (1803), *ib.* 61 ; *R.* v. *Bowen* (1846), 2 Car. & K. 227.

(*n*) *Topping's Case* (1856), Dears. C. C. 647.

(*o*) *R.* v. *Briggs* (1856), Dears. & B. C. C. 98 ; 26 L. J. M. C. 7 ; *R.* v. *Willshire* (1881), 6 Q. B. D. 366.

(*p*) *R.* v. *Tolson* (1889), 23 Q. B. D. 168.

trust, he shall be liable to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for a term not exceeding three years (*q*). Also, if any person shall maliciously publish any defamatory libel, knowing the same to be false, he may be imprisoned for a term not exceeding two years, and may have to pay such fine as the court shall award (*r*) ; and if any person (though without such knowledge) shall maliciously publish any defamatory libel, he shall be liable to a fine or imprisonment, or both, as the court shall award, such imprisonment not to exceed one year (*s*).

But besides libels of the sorts referred to, the term libel includes also such writings as are blasphemous, treasonable, seditious, or immoral ; and the publication of any of these latter is a misdemeanor, because of the outrage which it inflicts on the religious feelings of the community, and subjects the person by whom the libel was composed, written, printed, or published, to fine and imprisonment. The Criminal Libel Act, 1819, also expressly provides, as to libels of a blasphemous or seditious kind, that in every case in which there shall be judgment against any person for composing, printing, or publishing the same, the court may order the seizure of all copies of the libel which shall be in the possession of such person, or in the possession of any other person for his use ; and upon the proper evidence of such possession, any justice of the peace, constable, or other peace officer, acting under such order, may search for such copies, in any house, building, or place belonging to the person named in such order, and may enter therein in the daytime by force, if admission be refused or unreasonably delayed.

[Under the Roman law, libel, considered as a criminal offence, was treated, at certain periods, with even more severity than with us. For, by the law of the Twelve

(*q*) Libel Act, 1843, s. 3.
(*r*) Sect. 4 ; *R.* v. *Munslow*, [1895] 1 Q. B. 758.
(*s*) Sect. 5.

[Tables, libels were made a capital offence ; and although, before the reign of Augustus, the punishment had become a mere chastisement of the offender, still, under the Emperor Valentinian, the offence was again made capital. And not only to write libels, but to publish or even to omit to destroy them was a capital offence (*t*). But our law, in this as in many other respects, corresponds rather with the middle age of Roman jurisprudence, when liberty, learning, and humanity were in their full vigour : and exhibits a moderation which is sufficient to protect it from any imputation of infringing on the *liberty of the press*. Which liberty, when rightly understood, consists, however, not in freedom from censure for the publication of criminal matter ; for while every one may lay what sentiments he pleases before the public, yet, if he publishes what is blasphemous or otherwise improper, or mischievous, or illegal, he must take the consequences of his own temerity. For although to subject the press to the restrictive power of a licenser would be to subject all freedom of sentiment to the judgment of one man (*u*), yet to punish offensive writings, which, on a fair and impartial trial, are adjudged of a pernicious tendency, is necessary for the due preservation of peace and order, and of good government and religion.] Moreover, prosecutions for libels, of a character which may be thought to reflect upon the public welfare, are, in this country, properly safeguarded from abuse by the Newspaper Libel and Registration Act, 1881, which gives courts of summary jurisdiction wide powers to dispose of cases of small importance, and by the Law of Libel Amendment Act, 1888, which prohibits the prosecution by indictment of libel in a registered newspaper, unless the order of a judge in chambers has first been obtained.

(*t*) Cod. L. ix. 36.

(*u*) *Vide sup.* bk. iv. pt. iii. ch. xi.

(*x*) *R.* v. *Yates* (1885), 14 Q. B. D. 648 ; *Ex parte Pulbrook*, [1892] 1 Q. B. 86.

CHAPTER V.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST RIGHTS OF PROPERTY OR ARISING OUT OF CONTRACT.

THE crimes we propose next to consider are such as affect PROPERTY; and we shall notice, first, offences which affect houses or other property connected with land; and, secondly, offences against property in general, including offences against rights arising out of contract.

And, first, (A.) With respect to offences affecting houses, and other property connected with land.

[I. *Arson* (ab *ardendo*) is the malicious and wilful burning of the house or outhouse of another man. This is an offence of very great malignity, and much more pernicious to the public than is simple theft, because of the terror and confusion which necessarily attend it, and, also, because in simple theft the thing stolen only changes its master, whereas, by burning, the very substance of the thing is destroyed, and for ever lost. Arson is, in fact, frequently more destructive than murder itself, of which, too, it is often the cause, since murder, atrocious as it is, seldom extends beyond the felonious act designed; whereas fire too frequently involves in one common calamity persons unknown to the incendiary, and not intended to be hurt by him, and friends as well as enemies (*a*). For this reason the civil law punished with death such as maliciously set fire to houses in towns, or contiguous to other houses (*b*). And in considering the English law as to arson, we must inquire, first, what is such a house as

(*a*) As in *R.* v. *Servé* (1887), 16 Cox C. C. 311.

(*b*) Dig. 48, 19, 28, s. 12.

[may be the subject of arson ; next, wherein the offence itself consists, or what amounts to arson ; and, lastly, how arson is to be punished.

And first, not only the bare dwelling-house, but all outhouses that are parcel thereof, though not of necessity contiguous thereto, or under the same roof, as barns and stables, may be the subject of arson (*c*). The offence may be committed by wilfully setting fire to one's own house, provided one's neighbour's house is thereby also burnt ; but if no mischief be done but to one's own, this did not, at common law, amount to felony, though the fire was kindled with intent to burn another's house (*d*). However, such wilful firing one's own house *in a town*, was always a high misdemeanor, and was punishable by fine, imprisonment, and perpetual sureties for good behaviour (*e*) ; and if a landlord or reversioner set fire to his own house, of which another was in possession under a lease from himself, or from those whose estate he had, it was accounted arson, for, during the lease, the house is the property of the tenant (*f*).

Secondly, as to what shall be such a BURNING as amounts to arson. A bare attempt, *e.g.*, by actually setting fire to a house, unless the house is absolutely burnt, does not fall within the description of *incendit et combussit*, which were the words necessary in all indictments of this sort (*g*) : but the burning and consuming of any part is sufficient, though the fire be afterwards extinguished (*h*). Also, the burning must be *malicious*, *i.e.*, intentional ; otherwise it is only a trespass. And, therefore, no burning, through negligence or by mischance, amounts to arson (*i*).

Thirdly, the PUNISHMENT of arson. This was death by our antient Saxon laws (*k*). And in the reign of Edward

(*c*) 1 Hale, P. C. 567.

(*d*) Cro. Car. 377 ; 1 Jon. 351.

(*e*) 1 Hale, P. C. 568 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 39, s. 3.

(*f*) Fost. 115.

(*g*) *R.* v. *Russell* (1842), Car. & M. 541.

(*h*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 39, s. 4.

(*i*) 1 Hale, P. C. 569.

(*k*) LL. Inæ, c. 7.

[the First, the sentence was executed by a kind of *lex talionis;* for the incendiaries were burnt to death (*l*), as they were also under the Gothic constitutions (*m*). Under the 8 Hen. VI. (1430), c. 6, the wilful burning of houses, under certain special circumstances, amounted to high treason; but arson was again reduced to an ordinary felony, by Acts of Edward the Sixth and Queen Mary (*n*). The offence of arson was at one time denied the benefit of clergy, by the 23 Hen. VIII. (1532), c. 1; and, that statute having been repealed by the 1 Edw. VI. (1547), c. 12, it became a question, whether or not arson in the *principal* offender continued to be ousted of clergy, the 4 & 5 Ph. & M. (1557), c. 4, expressly denying the benefit of clergy to *accessories* before the fact (*o*).]

The offence of arson, including the punishment therefor, is now regulated specifically by the Malicious Damage Act, 1861. By that Act it is provided (sect. 2) as regards buildings, that whoever shall unlawfully and maliciously set fire to a dwelling-house, any person being therein, shall be guilty of felony, and shall be liable to penal servitude for life, or not less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment for not more than two years, with or without hard labour (*p*); and (if the offender be a male under the age of sixteen) he may be whipped. And (by sect. 1) the same punishments are attached to the felonious offence of setting fire to a church, chapel, meeting-house, or other place of divine worship; and (by sect. 3) to the felonious firing of a house, stable, coach-house, out-house (*q*), warehouse, office, shop, mill, malthouse, hopoast, barn, storehouse, granary, hovel, shed, orfold, or any building or erection used on a farm, or in

(*l*) Britt. c. 9.

(*m*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 3, c. 6.

(*n*) 1 Edw. 6 (1547), c. 12, and 1 Mary (1553), sess. 1.

(*o*) 11 Rep. 35; 2 Hale, P. C. 346, 347; Fost. 336.

(*p*) Penal Servitude Act, 1891.

(*q*) *R.* v. *Jones* (1844), 1 Car. & K. 303; *R.* v. *England* (1844), *ib.* 533.

carrying on any trade or manufacture, whether in possession of the offender or other person (provided the intent be to injure or defraud any person). By sect. 4 the felonious offence of firing a station or other building belonging to a railway, port, dock, harbour, canal, or other navigation, or (under sect. 5) any kind of building (other than those already specified) belonging to the Crown, or to a county, riding, division, city, borough, poor-law union, parish, or place, or to any university, college, or hall, or to any inn of court, or devoted or dedicated to public use or ornament, or erected or maintained by public subscription or contribution, is likewise made arson. And (by sect. 6) as regards all other buildings not specified above, the offence of setting fire to them unlawfully and maliciously, is a felony punishable with penal servitude to the extent of fourteen years instead of life, or else by such imprisonment as already mentioned (*r*); and (by sects. 7, 8) it is a felony, and punishable as last-mentioned, to *attempt* by any overt act to set fire to a building, or to set fire to, or attempt to set fire to any matter or thing in, against, or under a building, under such circumstances that if the firing were accomplished the offence would amount to felony (*s*). With regard to things other than *buildings*, it is enacted (by sect. 17) that unlawfully and maliciously to set fire to any *stack* of corn, grain, pulse, tares, hay, straw, haulm, stubble, or other cultivated vegetable produce, or to any stack of furze, gorse, heath, fern, turf, peat, coals, charcoal, wood or bark, or steer of wood or bark, shall be equally penal as firing any of the buildings above specified (*t*). But in the case of setting fire to any *crop* of hay, grass, corn, grain, or pulse, or cultivated vegetable produce, whether standing or cut down, or to any part of any wood, coppice, or plantation of trees, or

(*r*) *R.* v. *Manning* (1871), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 338.

(*s*) *R.* v. *Child* (1871), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 307.

(*t*) 3 Inst. 67; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 39, s. 2.

to any heath, gorse, furze, or fern, wheresoever the same may be growing, the punishment (if by way of penal servitude) is limited (by sect. 16) to the term of *fourteen years* instead of life (*u*) ; and (by sect. 18) to the term of *seven years*, if either of the last two offences be *attempted*, under such circumstances that if the firing were effected, the offender would be guilty of felony. And the offence of firing any *coal mine* (*x*), or *ship* or *vessel* (*y*), is made equally penal with setting fire to *buildings;* and the *attempt* to do so is also severely punishable, the term of penal servitude being in that case fourteen years (*z*).

[II. *Burglary* (or nocturnal housebreaking). *burgi latrocinium*, which, by our antient law, was called *hame-socken*, has always been looked upon as a very heinous offence, seeing that it always occasions frightful alarm, and often leads to murder itself. Its malignity also is strongly illustrated, by considering how particular and tender a regard is paid by the law of England to the immunity of a man's house, which it styles his castle ; agreeing herein with the sentiment expressed by Cicero, "*quid enim sanctius, quid omni religione munitius, quam domus uniuscujusque civium ?*" (*a*).

The definition of a burglar, as given us by Sir Edward Coke, is "he that by night breaketh and entereth into a "mansion-house, with intent to commit a felony" (*b*) ; and in this definition there are four things to be considered —the *time*, the *place*, the *manner*, and the *intent*.

The *Time* must be by night, and not by day ; for in the daytime is no burglary. And as to what shall be reckoned night and what day, the day was antiently accounted to begin only at sunrising, and to end immediately upon sunset ; but the better opinion afterwards was, that if

(*u*) *R.* v. *Satchwell* (1873), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 21 ; *R.* v. *Twose* (1879), 14 Cox C. C. 327.

(*x*) Sect. 26.

(*y*) Sects. 42, 43 ; *R.* v. *Bowyer* (1831), 4 Car. & P. 559.

(*z*) Sect. 27.

(*a*) *Pro Domo*, 41.

(*b*) 3 Inst. 63.

[there were daylight or *crepusculum* enough, begun or left, to discern a man's face withal, it was no burglary (*c*). But this did not extend to moonlight, for then many midnight burglaries would have gone unpunished; and besides, the malignity of the offence does not so properly arise from its being done in the dark as at the dead of night, when all creation is at rest.] But it has now been provided by the Larceny Act, 1861, s. 1, that so far as regards the crime of burglary now under consideration, the night shall be deemed to commence at nine in the evening, and to conclude at six in the morning of the succeeding day.

[*As to the place.*—It must, according to Sir E. Coke's definition, be a *mansion-house;* and therefore to account for the reason why breaking open a church by night is burglary, he observes, that the church is *domus mansionalis Dei* (*d*). But it does not seem absolutely necessary, that the place should, in all cases, be a mansion-house; for burglary may also be committed by breaking the gates or walls of a *town* in the night, though that perhaps Sir Edward Coke would have called the mansion-house of the garrison or corporation. And Spelman defines burglary to be "*nocturna diruptio alicujus habitaculi, vel ecclesiæ, etiam murorum portarumve civitatis aut burgi, ad feloniam aliquam perpetrandam*" (*e*). And we may therefore safely conclude, that the requisite of its being *domus mansionalis*, is only in the burglary of a private house, which is the most frequent; and in which it is indispensably necessary, to form its guilt, that it must be in a mansion or dwelling-house. For no distant barn, warehouse, or the like, is under the same privileges, nor looked upon as a man's castle or defence; nor is a breaking open of houses wherein no man resides, and which therefore for the time being are not mansion-houses, attended with the same circumstances of midnight terror. A house, however, wherein a

(*c*) 3 Inst. 63; 1 Hale, P. C. 550; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 38, s. 2.

(*d*) 3 Inst. 64.

(*e*) Spelm. *Gloss.*, *Burglary.*

[man sometimes resides, and which the owner hath only left for a short season, *animo revertendi*, is the object of burglary, though no one be in it at the time of the fact committed (*f*). And it was formerly the rule (*g*), that if the barn, stable, or warehouse, were parcel of the mansion-house, and within the same common fence, though not necessarily under the same roof, or contiguous, a burglary might be committed therein ; for the capital house protected and privileged all its branches and appurtenances, which were within the curtilage or homestall. But it is now provided, by sect. 53 of the Larceny Act, 1861, that no building, although within the same curtilage with the dwelling-house, or occupied therewith, shall be deemed to be a part of such dwelling-house for the purpose of burglary, unless there shall be a *communication* between such building and dwelling-house, either immediate or by means of a covered and inclosed passage leading from the one to the other. Chambers in a college or in an inn of court, where each inhabitant hath a distinct property, are the mansion-house of the owner (*h*); and the rooms or lodgings in any private house are the mansion of the lodger, if the owner doth not himself dwell in the house, or if he and his lodger enter by different outer doors (*i*). But if the owner himself lives in the house, and hath but one outer door at which he and his lodgers enter, such lodgers are only inmates, and their apartments are but parcel of the one dwelling-house of the owner (*k*). Thus, too, the house of a corporation, inhabited in separate apartments by the officers of the body corporate, is the mansion-house of the corporation, and not of the respective officers (*l*). But if I hire a

(*f*) 1 Hale, P. C. 556 ; Fost. 77.

(*g*) *R.* v. *Garland* (1776), 1 Leach, 144.

(*h*) 1 Hale, P. C. 556 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 38, s. 13.

(*i*) *R.* v. *Rogers* (1772), 1 Leach, 89 ; *R.* v. *Trapshaw* (1786), *ib.* 427.

(*k*) Kel. 84 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 556.

(*l*) Fost. 38, 39 ; 2 East, P. C. c. 15, s. 14.

[shop, parcel of another man's house, and work or trade in it, but never lie there, it is no dwelling-house, nor can burglary be committed therein. For, by the lease, it is severed from the rest of the house, and therefore is not the dwelling-house of him who occupies the other part; neither can I be said to dwell therein, when I never lie there (*m*). Neither can burglary be committed in a tent or booth erected in a market or fair, though the owner may lie therein (*n*): for the law, for this purpose, regards nothing but permanent edifices—a house or church, the wall or gate of a town. And though it may be the choice of the owner to lodge in so fragile a tenement, yet his lodging there does not make it burglary to break open his tent or booth.

As to the manner.—A burglary requires, for the complete offence, both a breaking and an entry; but they need not be both done at once (*o*). For if a hole be broken one night and the same breaker enters the next night through the same hole, he is a burglar (*p*). There must in general be an actual breaking, not a mere legal *clausum fregit*, by leaping over invisible ideal boundaries, such as would constitute a trespass, but a substantial and forcible irruption, as, for example, by breaking, or taking out the glass of, or otherwise opening, a window; picking a lock, or opening it with a key; or by lifting up the latch of a door, or unloosing any other fastening which the owner hath provided. But if a person leaves his doors or windows open, it is his own folly and imprudence; therefore if a man enters thereby, it is no burglary: yet if he afterwards opens an inner door, it is so (*q*). But to enter by coming down a chimney is a burglary; for that is as much closed as the nature of the thing admits. So also to knock at a door, and upon opening it to rush in

(*m*) 1 Hale, P. C. 558.

(*n*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 38, s. 17.

(*o*) *R.* v. *Bird* (1839), 9 Car. & P. 44; *R.* v. *Smith* (1820), Russ. & R. 417.

(*p*) 1 Hale, P. C. 551.

(*q*) *Ibid.* 553.

[with a felonious intent ; or, under pretence of taking lodgings, to fall upon the landlord and rob him ; or to procure a constable to gain admittance in order to search for traitors, and then to bind the constable and rob the house,—all these entries are burglarious, though there is no actual breaking. For the law will not suffer itself to be trifled with by such evasions, especially under the cloak of legal process (*r*). And so if a servant opens and enters his master's chamber door, with a felonious design ; or if any other person lodging in the same house, or in a public inn, opens and enters another's door with such evil intent, it is burglary. Nay, if the servant conspires with a robber, and lets him into the house by night, this is burglary in both (*s*) ; for the servant is doing an unlawful act, and the opportunity afforded him of doing it with greater ease, rather aggravates than extenuates his guilt. As for the entry, any the least degree of it with any part of the body, or with an instrument held in the hand, is sufficient: *e.g.*, to step over the threshold, to put a hand or hook in at the window to draw out goods, or a pistol to demand money, are all of them burglarious entries (*t*). The entry may be before the breaking as well as after : for though there were once different opinions upon the question, as to whether the breaking *out* of a house to escape, by a man who had previously entered by an open door with intent to steal, was burglary,—Lord Bacon (*u*) holding the affirmative, and Sir Matthew Hale (*x*) the negative,] it is now enacted, by sect. 51 of the Larceny Act, 1861, that whosoever shall enter the dwelling-house of another with intent to commit any felony therein, or

(*r*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 38, s. 5.

(*s*) *Cornwall's Case* (1731), 2 Stra. 881 ; 19 St. Tri. 782 n.

(*t*) 1 Hale, P. C. 555 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 38, s. 7 ; Fost. 108 ; *R.* v. *Russell* (1833), 1 Mood. 377 ; *R.* v. *Davis* (1823), Russ. & R. 499 ; *R.* v. *Lawrence* (1830), 4 Car. & P. 231 ; *R.* v. *Smith* (1820), Russ. & R. 417.

(*u*) Bac. *Elem.* 65 ; 2 East. P. C. c. 15, s. 6.

(*x*) 1 Hale, P. C. 554.

being in such dwelling-house shall commit any felony therein, and shall in either case *break out* of the said dwelling-house in the night, shall be deemed guilty of burglary. [It is universally agreed, however, that there must be both a breaking, either in fact or by implication, and also an entry, in order to complete the burglary.

As to the intent.—It is clear, that the breaking and entry must be with a felonious intent, otherwise it is only a trespass (*y*); but such intention need not be actually carried into execution, it is sufficient, if it be demonstrated by some overt act. And therefore, such breach and entry by night, with intent to commit a robbery, a murder, a rape, or any other felony, is burglary, whether the thing be actually perpetrated or not. Nor does it make any difference, whether the offence were felony at common law or only felony by statute, since the statute which makes an offence felony gives it incidentally, for this purpose, all the properties of a felony at common law.

Thus much for the nature of burglary; which (we may observe, in passing) was a clergyable offence, until the 1 Edw. VI. (1547), c. 12 and 18 Eliz. (1576), c. 7.] It is noticeable that (when committed under certain circumstances of aggravation) it remained, until the reign of Victoria, a capital offence. For, by the 7 Will. IV. & 1 Vict. (1837), c. 86, burglariously to break and enter into any dwelling-house, and to assault with intent to murder—or (even without such intent) to stab, cut, wound, beat, or strike—any person being therein, was a felony punishable with death. But the punishment for this offence is now prescribed by the Larceny Act, 1861, s. 52, which enacts, that whoever shall be convicted of the crime of burglary shall be liable to penal servitude for life, or any term not less than five (now three) years (*z*), or to be imprisoned for any term not more than two years; and to the imprisonment, hard labour and solitary confine-

(*y*) 1 Hale P. C. 561. (*z*) Penal Servitude Act, 1891.

ment may be added. The offence may now be tried at the Quarter Sessions (*a*), although it will more usually continue to be tried at the Assizes.

In connection with the crime of burglary, it may be mentioned, that whoever *in any way* enters a dwelling-house in the night, with intent to commit a felony, is guilty of felony, and punishable with penal servitude to the extent of seven years, or imprisonment as above specified (*b*) ; and that whoever is found by night, armed with a dangerous or offensive weapon or instrument, *with intent* to break or enter any building, and to commit a felony therein, or is even found by night in the possession, without lawful excuse, of any house-breaking implement, or with his face blackened or disguised, with intent to commit any felony ; or is found by night in any building, with intent to commit a felony therein—is guilty of a *misdemeanor*, punishable with penal servitude for three years, or imprisonment (with or without hard labour) not exceeding two years ; and, in case of a second conviction, or if convicted after a previous conviction for felony, he is liable either to such imprisonment, or to penal servitude to the extent of ten years (*c*). And by the Vagrancy Act, 1824, s. 4, persons in possession of house-breaking implements, with intent to break into a house, are deemed *rogues and vagabonds*, and punishable accordingly.

III. *Sacrilege and house-breaking by day.*—Both of these offences are now regulated by the Larceny Act, 1861. And with regard to the first of them, it is provided (by sects. 50, 52), that the same penal consequences as are provided by the Act with respect to *burglary*, shall attach to any one who shall break and enter any church, chapel, meeting-house, or other place of divine worship,

(*a*) Burglary Act, 1896.

(*b*) Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 54.

(*c*) Sects. 58, 59 ; *R.* v. *Bailey* (1853), Dears. C. C. 244.

and commit a felony therein, or, being in such place, shall commit a felony therein, and then *break out* of the same. For this constitutes the crime of sacrilege, and is breaking into the House of God; and consequently, it is made more penal than to break by day into other buildings. But with regard to the second offence, namely, house-breaking by day, the extreme limit of the term of penal servitude which may be inflicted is fourteen years, instead of life (*d*).

The Act (by sect. 56) defines house-breaking as the felony committed by any one who breaks and enters any dwelling-house, school-house, shop, warehouse, or counting-house, and commits any felony therein, and breaks out of the same; but no building, although within the curtilage of a dwelling-house and occupied therewith, is to be deemed part thereof, unless there be a *communication* with it either immediate or by means of a covered and enclosed passage. And (by sect. 57) it is also a felony, and punishable either by imprisonment as in the previous cases, or by penal servitude to the extent of seven years, to break and enter any dwelling-house, church, chapel, meeting-house, or other place of divine worship, or any building within the curtilage, or any school-house, shop, warehouse, or counting-house, *with intent* to commit any felony therein, although such felony shall not have been effected (*e*). And it is to be remembered also, that on an indictment charging the actual commission of a felony, the prisoner may be found guilty of the attempt to do so, and be punished accordingly (*f*).

(B.). Secondly, With respect to offences against property (other than buildings).—These offences are principally as follows:

I. *Larceny, or theft* (latrociny,—*latrocinium*), is the felonious taking and carrying away of things personal,

(*d*) Larceny Act, 1861, ss. 55, 56.

(*e*) *R.* v. *McPherson* (1857), 26 L. J. M. C. 134; 7 Cox C. C. 281.

(*f*) Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, s. 9.

with intent to deprive the rightful owner of the same; and the offence is either simple larceny, or it is larceny accompanied with circumstances of aggravation. In the first place, larceny must be an UNLAWFUL TAKING (*g*); which implies that the goods must pass from the possession of the rightful owner, and without his consent (*h*). And therefore where there is no change of possession, or the change is by consent, or if the change be from the possession of a person without title to that of the rightful owner, there can be no larceny. And as the taking must be without the consent of the owner, so, in general, no delivery of the goods from the owner to the offender upon trust, could at the common law ground a larceny; as if A. lends B. a horse, and he rides away with him. Yet, if the delivery be obtained from the owner by a person having *animus furandi* at the time, and he afterwards unlawfully appropriates the goods in pursuance of that intent, it is larceny; as if B. solicited the loan of the horse, with intent to steal him (*i*). But in such cases, the bare failure to re-deliver to the owner shall not be assumed to arise of necessity from a felonious design: since such failure may happen from a variety of accidents. On the other hand, one who has received goods by delivery from the owner, under such circumstances as fail to divest such owner of the legal possession, will be guilty of larceny if he appropriates them to himself (*k*); as when a servant makes away with his master's plate (*l*), or the guest at an inn makes away with the articles of which he has the temporary use (*m*). And, moreover, the principle of the common law, as to the necessity of the owner not consenting to the original taking, in order to support a charge

(*g*) 1 Hale, P. C. 504.

(*h*) *R.* v. *Kenny* (1877), 2 Q. B. D. 307; *R.* v. *Lovell* (1881), 8 Q. B. D. 185.

(*i*) *Major Semple's Case* (1786), 1 Leach, 420; *R.* v. *Pitman* (1826), 2 Car. & P. 423.

(*k*) *Reed's Case* (1853), Dears. C. C. 168, 257.

(*l*) 1 Hale, P. C. 506.

(*m*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 33, s. 6.

of larceny, has been to some extent qualified by the legislature; for whoever steals any chattel or fixture, let to be used by him in any house or lodging, will be guilty of felony, and (by the Larceny Act, 1861, s. 74) may be punished (if the value of what is stolen shall exceed five pounds) with penal servitude for seven years or imprisonment for two, and (if the value of what is stolen does not exceed five pounds) may be imprisoned to the extent of two years. In either case, to the punishment of imprisonment, hard labour with solitary confinement, and (if the offender be a male under the age of sixteen) whipping, may be added. And, by the Larceny Act, 1861, s. 3, the bailee of any chattel, money, or valuable security, who shall fraudulently take or convert the same to his own use, or to the use of any person other than the owner thereof, shall be guilty of larceny, although he shall not break bulk or otherwise determine the bailment; which latter determination was, at common law, a condition precedent to larceny by such bailee (*n*).

[Secondly, there must be a CARRYING AWAY, as well as a TAKING. But a bare removal by the thief from the place in which he found the goods, though he may not quite make off with them, is a sufficient asportation. As if a man leading another's horse out of a close, be apprehended in the act; or if a guest, stealing goods out of an inn, has removed them from his bed-chamber to a room downstairs (*o*); or if a thief, intending to steal plate, takes it out of a chest and lays it down upon the floor, but is surprised before he can make his escape with it (*p*).

Thirdly, the taking and carrying away must be of PERSONAL GOODS. Lands, tenements, and hereditaments, either corporeal or incorporeal, cannot, therefore, be the subject of larceny; and in respect of things that adhere to the freehold,—as corn, grass, trees, and the like,—no

(*n*) *R.* v. *Macdonald* (1885), 15 Q. B. D. 323.

(*o*) 3 Inst. 108, 109.

(*p*) *R.* v. *White* (1853), Dears. C. C. 203.

[larceny could be committed of them by the rules of the common law, but the severance of them was merely a trespass, they being parcel of the real estate. If, however, the thief severed them at *one* time, and came again at *another* time, and took them away, that was larceny at the common law; and so it was, if the owner, or any one else, severed them and they were afterwards removed by the thief (*q*). So, upon nearly the same principle, the stealing of writings relating to real estate was at common law no felony, but a trespass (*r*); because these concerned the land, or, according to our technical language, *savoured of the realty*. Bonds, bills, and notes (which are merely *choses in action*) were also, at the common law, held (although on other grounds) not to be goods whereof larceny might be committed, being of no intrinsic value, and not importing any property in the *possession* of the person from whom they were taken (*s*). By the common law, also, larceny could not be committed of treasure-trove, or wreck, till seized by the Crown or by him who had the franchise; for till such seizure, no one had a determinate property therein. Nor could larceny be committed, at the common law, of animals wherein there was no property either absolute or qualified, as of beasts *feræ naturæ* and unreclaimed, such as deer, hares, and conies in a forest, chase, or warren, fish in an open river or pond, or wild fowls at their natural liberty (*t*). But if such animals were reclaimed or confined, and might serve for food, it was otherwise; for of deer enclosed in a park that they may be taken at pleasure, of fish in a tank, and of pheasants or partridges in a mew, larceny, at common law, may be committed (*u*). It is also said, that if swans

(*q*) 3 Inst. 109; 1 Hale, P. C. 510.

(*r*) Hale, *ubi sup.*; *R.* v. *Westbeer* (1739), 1 Leach, 12; 2 Stra. 1137.

(*s*) 8 Rep. 33 b.; *R.* v. *Watts* (1854), Dears. C. C. 326.

(*t*) 1 Hale, P. C. 511; Fost. 366.

(*u*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 33, s. 25; Hale, *ubi sup.*; *R.* v. *Cheafor* (1851), 21 L. J. M. C. 43; *Taylor* v. *Newman* (1863), 4 Best. & Sm. 89.

[be lawfully marked, it is felony at common law to steal them, though they should be at large in a public river, and that it is likewise felony to steal them, though unmarked, if they are in any private river or pond ; otherwise, it is only a trespass (*x*). But of all valuable domestic animals, as horses and other beasts of draught, and of all animals *domitæ naturæ*, which serve for food, as cattle, swine, poultry, and the like, and of their fruit or produce taken from them while living, as milk or wool (*y*), larceny may be committed at common law : as it may also be of the flesh of such as are either *domitæ* or *feræ naturæ*, when killed (*z*). On the other hand, as to those animals which do not serve for food, and which therefore the law holds to have no intrinsic value,—as dogs of all sorts, and other creatures kept for whim and pleasure,—though a man might have some sort of property therein, and might possibly maintain a civil action for the loss of them (*a*), yet they were not of such estimation as that the crime of stealing them amounted *by the common law* to the offence of larceny (*b*).

Lastly, the carrying away must be WITH INTENT TO DEPRIVE THE RIGHTFUL OWNER of that which is taken, or (as it is frequently expressed) the carrying away must be *animo furandi* (*c*). This requisite, besides excusing those who labour under incapacities of mind or will, indemnifies also mere trespassers and other petty offenders ; as if a servant takes his master's horse without his knowledge, and brings him home again, if a neighbour takes another's plough that is left in the field, and uses it upon his own land, and then returns it, if, under colour of being owner of rent where none is due, I distrain another's cattle or

(*x*) Dalt. *Just.* c. 156 ; *Case of Swans* (1592), 7 Rep. 16.

(*y*) Dalt. 21 ; Crompt. 36 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 33, s. 28 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 511.

(*z*) Hale, *ubi sup.*

(*a*) Hale, *ubi sup.* 512.

(*b*) *Ibid.*

(*c*) *R.* v. *Middleton* (1873), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 38.

[seize them, all these are trespasses, but no felonies (*d*). And although the ordinary indication of a felonious intent, is where the party doth it clandestinely, or where, being charged with the fact, he denies it; yet this is by no means the only criterion of criminality. For the variety of circumstances is so great, and the complication thereof so mingled, and the excuses of the thievish mind so subtle, that it is impossible to recount all those which may evidence a felonious intent or *animus furandi*. Wherefore the whole matter must therefore be left to the consideration of the court and jury (*e*).

The crime of larceny may be committed as to a thing whereof the owner is *unknown*, provided it appear that there is an owner other than the taker (*f*); and an example of this may occur in the case of stealing a shroud out of a grave, which is the property of those (whoever they were) that buried the deceased. But stealing the corpse itself, though a matter of great indecency (and, if the corpse be disinterred for the purpose, an indictable misdemeanor), is said to be no felony, unless some of the grave-clothes be stolen with it.

Having thus considered the general nature of larceny, we now arrive at its punishment, which differs according as the offence is simple larceny or is attended with circumstances of aggravation. Theft, by the Jewish law, was only punished with a pecuniary fine and satisfaction to the party injured (*g*). The laws of Draco, at Athens, punished it with death; but his laws were said to be written in blood, and Solon afterwards changed the penalty to a pecuniary mulct. The civil law obliged the *fur* (or common thief) to restore the thing stolen, and

(*d*) 1 Hale, P. C. 509.

(*e*) *R.* v. *Hall* (1848), 1 Den. 381; *R.* v. *Manning* (1852), Dears. C. C. 21; *R.* v. *Christopher* (1858), 28 L. J. M. C. 35.

(*f*) 1 Hale, P. C. 512; 2 Hale, P. C. 290.

(*g*) Exod. xxii.

[to pay in addition a fine to the owner, though in some late constitutions the punishment was capital. In this country, the antient Saxon laws nominally punished theft with death, if above the value of twelve pence ; but the criminal was at first permitted to redeem his life by a pecuniary ransom, as (amongst the Germans) by a stated number of cattle (*h*). But in the ninth year of Henry the First, this power of redemption was taken away ; and all persons guilty of larceny, above the value of twelve pence, were directed to be hanged.] So that stealing to above this value, (which was called *grand larceny*,) became a capital felony, and continued such down to modern times, wherever (as was very frequently the case) the *benefit of clergy* was taken away, by some express statute, from the particular species of theft of which the offender was convicted, though if not so taken away, then (by the law relating to benefit of clergy as latterly modified) the pains of death were in fact excused, provided it were the first offence. On the other hand, *petty larceny*, that is, theft *under* the value of twelve pence, was never capital, but was a felony punishable with imprisonment or whipping only (*i*). At the present day, however, there is no distinction recognized by the law between *grand* and *petty* larceny, though that between *simple* and *aggravated* larceny still remains ; and by the law as now in force, the punishment for simple larceny (or of any felony made punishable like simple larceny) is in general penal servitude for not less than *three* nor more than *five* years (*k*), or imprisonment not exceeding two years, with or without hard labour, solitary confinement, and (in the case of a male under sixteen years) whipping (*l*). After a previous conviction for an indictable misdemeanor, punishable under the Larceny Act, 1861, or after two

(*h*) Tac. *de Mor. Germ.* c. 12.
(*i*) 3 Inst. 218 ; Hawk. b. 1, c. 33, s. 36.
(*k*) Penal Servitude Act, 1891.
(*l*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 4.

summary convictions under that Act or the Malicious Damage Act, 1861, the term of penal servitude may extend to *seven* years (*m*); and in case of a conviction after a previous conviction for *felony* (either on indictment or by way of summary conviction), may be as long as *ten* years (*n*). In certain cases, moreover, where the larceny relates to a subject for which the policy of the law provides with more anxiety, the punishment may be even more severe; for if any person shall steal (to the value of ten shillings) any woollen, linen, hempen, or cotton yarn; or any goods or article of silk, woollen, linen, cotton, alpaca, or mohair; or any one or more of those materials mixed with each other, or mixed with any other material, whilst laid, placed or exposed, during any stage, process, or progress of manufacture, in any building, field, or other place,—the term of penal servitude, which may at the discretion of the court be given instead of mere imprisonment, is extended to *fourteen* years (*o*). Also, whoever shall steal a horse, mare, gelding, colt, or filly; a bull, cow, ox, heifer or calf; or a ram, ewe, sheep, or lamb—is punishable by penal servitude to the extent of *fourteen*, or not less than three years, or by imprisonment, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, to the extent of two years (*p*). And there are correspondingly severe punishments assigned (by sect. 11) to killing animals with intent to steal the carcase; (by sects. 12—15) to stealing deer kept in forests, etc. (*q*); and (by sects. 11—25) to stealing rabbits, pigeons, fish, and the like.

[The additional severity sanctioned in these instances, is owing to the difficulty there would otherwise be in preserving goods so easily carried off. Upon which principle, the Roman law punished more severely than other

(*m*) Sects. 8 and 9.
(*n*) Sect. 7.
(*o*) Sect. 62.
(*p*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 10; Penal Servitude Act, 1891.
(*q*) *Threlkeld* v. *Smith*, [1901] 2 K. B. 531.

[thieves the *abigei*, or stealers of cattle (*r*), and the *balnearii*, or such as stole the clothes of persons who were washing in the public baths (*s*) ; both which constitutions seem to have been borrowed from the laws of Athens (*t*). And so, too, the antient Goths punished, with unrelenting severity, thefts of cattle, or corn that was reaped and left on the field ; such kind of property, which no human industry can sufficiently guard, being esteemed under the peculiar custody of heaven (*u*).]

The offences which we have been hitherto considering were, for the most part, larcenies *at common law ;* but in connection with this subject, and proper for consideration under the same head, is the crime of stealing things which are *not the subject of larceny at common law.* For in progress of time it was found necessary to extend the protection of the penal laws to many of those subjects, of which the antient law of larceny took no account ; and Acts of Parliament were accordingly passed, from time to time, by which punishments were imposed for thefts committed in respect of various kinds of property so circumstanced. And though these statutes have been repealed, the same general object has been secured by the Larceny Act, 1861, to which we have already in this chapter had so frequent occasion to refer. For, by that Act, provision has been made against stealing "valuable securities," such as bonds, bills, and the like (*v*), and many other subjects of property, of which an enumeration will be found in the note below (*x*) ; and it may be laid down in

(*r*) Dig. 47, t. 14

(*s*) *Ibid.* t. 17.

(*t*) Pott. *Antiq.* b. 1, c. 26.

(*u*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 3, c. 5.

(*v*) Sects. 1, 27 ; *R.* v. *Smith* (1855), Dears. C. C. 561.

(*x*) See ss. 18—20, as to *dogs ;* ss. 21, 22, as to *birds and animals ordinarily kept in confinement ;* s. 26, as to *oysters ;* s. 27, as to *valuable securities not being part of title to lands ;* s. 28, as to *documents of title to lands ;* s. 29, as to *wills ;* s. 30, as to *records and legal documents ;* s. 31, as to *fixtures ;* ss. 32, 33, as to *trees ;* ss. 34, 35, as to *fences ;* s. 36, as to *fruit ;* s. 37, as to *garden produce ;* ss. 38, 39, as to *ores.*

general terms, that stealing has now become an offence, liable to punishment, with regard to all movables whatever. We may remark, with respect to the kinds of stealing thus created by statute in supplement to the antient law of larceny, that all the common law doctrines relative to larceny, which we have already had occasion to notice, are in general applicable to thefts of this description also (*y*), even though they may not be technically denominated *larcenies* (*z*); and that their punishment is, in many cases, identical, although in some few instances, they do not amount (like larceny at common law) to felony, but to a misdemeanor only, and in still other instances amount neither to a felony nor to a misdemeanor, but are merely offences restrained by pecuniary penalties, recoverable in a summary way before a justice of the peace (*a*).

The stealing by a wife of goods belonging to her husband is not larceny at common law, or under the Larceny Act, 1861 (*b*). But now, by the Married Women's Property Act, 1882, ss. 12, 16, a wife who steals goods of her husband when leaving or deserting, or about to leave or desert, him, may be convicted of larceny (*c*).

We have seen, that larceny may be either simple larceny, or larceny accompanied with circumstances of aggravation, *i.e.*, mixed, compound, or complicated larceny (*d*); and of *compound larceny*, which is not only (like simple larceny) felonious, but a felony of a more penal character, we now propose to speak.

1. *Larceny committed in a Dwelling-house.* — [This species of theft, though it seems to have a higher degree

(*y*) *R.* v. *John* (1835), 7 Car. & P. 324; *R.* v. *Ashwell* (1885), 16 Q. B. D. 190.

(*z*) *R.* v. *Gooch* (1838), 8 Car. & P. 293.

(*a*) *Vide post*, chap. XI., on Summary Convictions.

(*b*) *R.* v. *Streeter*, [1900] 2 Q. B. 601.

(*c*) *R.* v. *James and Johnson*, [1902] 1 K. B. 540.

(*d*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, cc. 33, 34.

[of guilt than simple larceny, yet was not at all distinguished therefrom at the common law (*e*), unless where it was accompanied with the circumstance of breaking the house by night, and then it fell under another description of crime, viz., burglary. But afterwards, by several Acts of Parliament,—the history of which is very ingeniously deduced by a learned writer, who hath shown them to have gradually arisen from our improvements in trade and opulence,—the benefit of clergy was taken away, in almost every instance, from larcenies when committed in a house (*f*); so that the capital sentence, to which they were at that period of our law subject as larcenies, took effect.] These Acts, however, are all repealed, and this crime is now regulated by ss. 60, 61 of the Larceny Act, 1861. By the first of these sections, whoever shall steal *in any dwelling-house*, any chattel, money, or valuable security, to the value of five pounds or more, shall be liable to penal servitude for fourteen years, or not less than five (now three) years, or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, not exceeding two years; and by the second of them, the same punishment is awarded to anyone who shall steal in a dwelling-house any chattel, money, or valuable security, and shall, by menace or threat, *put anyone, being therein, in bodily fear*.

2. *Larcenies in Ships, Wharfs, etc.*— Whoever steals goods or merchandize in a vessel, barge, or boat in any haven or port of entry or discharge, or upon a navigable river or canal, or in a creek or basin belonging to or communicating with such haven, port, river, or canal, or any goods or merchandize from a dock, wharf, or quay adjacent to such haven, port, river, canal, creek, or basin, is liable to the same punishments as last mentioned (*g*). And the same punishments may also be awarded to any

(*e*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 36.
(*f*) Barrington, *Statutes*, 375, &c.
(*g*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 63.

one who plunders or steals any part of a ship or vessel in distress, or wrecked or stranded, or cast on shore, or goods, merchandize, or articles of any kind to her belonging (*h*).

3. [*Larceny from the Person.*—This offence is committed either by *privately stealing*, or by stealing accompanied with an open and violent assault, which latter is usually called *robbery*. The offence of *privately stealing from a man's person*,—as by picking his pocket or the like, privily without his knowledge,—was debarred of the benefit of clergy (when the offence was capital), by the 8 Eliz. (1566), c. 4; a severity which seems to be owing to the case with which such offences were committed, the difficulty of guarding against them, and the boldness with which they were practised (even in the Queen's court and presence) at the time when this statute was made. And hence, too, the *saccularii*, or cutpurses, were more severely punished than common thieves by both the Roman and Athenian laws (*i*).] But the statute of Elizabeth was repealed by the 7 & 8 Geo. IV. (1827), c. 27; and the punishment of this offence is no longer capital.

[Open and violent larceny from the person, or robbery, the *rapina* of the civilians, is the unlawful and forcible taking from the person of another, of goods or money to any value, by violence or putting him in fear (*k*). 1. There must be an unlawful taking, otherwise it is no robbery; but at one time the *attempt* even was a felony equally with the completed offence (*l*). And if the thief, having once taken a purse, return it to the owner, still it is a robbery (*m*); and so it is, whether the taking be strictly from the person of another, or in his presence only, as where a robber, by menaces and violence, puts a man in fear, and drives away his sheep or his cattle before his

(*h*) Sect. 65.

(*i*) Dig. 47, 11, 7; Pott. *Antiq.* l. 1, c. 26.

(*k*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 34, s. 2.

(*l*) 1 Hale, P. C. 532.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Peat* (1781), 1 Leach, 228.

[face (*n*). On the other hand, if the taking be not either directly from his person or in his presence, it is no robbery (*o*). 2. It is immaterial of what value the thing is; a penny as well as a pound, thus forcibly extorted, makes the robbery (*p*). 3. Lastly, the taking must be by force, or a previous putting in fear, for it is this which makes the violation of the person more atrocious than privately stealing; and according to the maxim of the civil law, *qui vi rapit, fur improbior esse videtur* (*q*). This *previous* violence or putting in fear, is the criterion that distinguishes robbery from other larcenies; for if one privately steals a chattel from the person of another, and afterwards keeps it by putting him in fear, this is no robbery, for the fear is subsequent (*r*). Not that it is indeed necessary to lay in the indictment, that the robbery was committed by *putting in fear;* it is sufficient if laid to be done by *violence*. And when it is laid to be done by putting in fear, this does not imply any great degree of terror or affright in the party robbed; it is enough that so much force or threatening, by word or gesture, be used, as might create an apprehension of danger, or as might induce a man to part with his property, without or against his consent (*s*). Thus, if a man be knocked down without previous warning, and stripped of his property while senseless, though strictly he cannot be said to be *put in fear*, yet this is undoubtedly a robbery; or, if a person with a sword drawn begs an alms, and I give it him through mistrust and apprehension of violence, this also falls within the definition of robbery (*t*). And so if, under a pretence of sale, a man forcibly extorts money from another, neither shall this subterfuge avail him; but it has been doubted whether the forcing a higgler or other chap-

(*n*) 1 Hale, P. C. 533.
(*o*) Comyns, 478; *R.* v. *Francis* (1735), 2 Stra. 1015.
(*p*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 34, s. 12.
(*q*) Dig. 47, 2, 4, xxii.
(*r*) 1 Hale, P. C. 534.
(*s*) Fost. 128.
(*t*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 34, s. 9.

[man to sell his wares, and giving him the full value for them, amounts to so heinous a crime as robbery (*u*). This species of larceny was debarred of the benefit of clergy by the 23 Hen. VIII. (1532), c. 1, and other subsequent statutes ; not indeed in general, but only when committed in a dwelling-house, or in or near the king's highway. A robbery, therefore, in a distant field, was not punished with death (*x*), but was open to the benefit of clergy, till the 3 W. & M. (1691), c. 9, which took away clergy from both principals and accessories before the fact in robbery, wheresoever committed.]

But the statutes above referred to, as well as the 8 Eliz. (1566), c. 4, with respect to private stealing from the person, were repealed by the 7 & 8 Geo. IV. (1827), c. 27. And, by later enactments, new provisions have been made against both species of offences, with distinctions (as regards robbery) suitable to the aggravations with which that crime is usually accompanied. And now, whoever robs any one, or steals any chattel, money, or valuable security from his person, is guilty of felony, and may be sentenced to penal servitude for fourteen years or not less than three years, or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, not exceeding two years (*y*). If the robbery be not effected or proved, but the offender be convicted (as he may be on an indictment for robbery) of an *assault with intent to rob*, then such assault is also felony, and imprisonment to the same extent as last mentioned may be awarded ; though, if the punishment be by way of penal servitude, the maximum term is five years (*z*). In certain instances, however, either robbery or an assault with intent to rob is more severely punishable ; for whoever robs, or assaults with intent to rob, being at the time armed with an

(*u*) *Ibid.* s. 14.
(*x*) 1 Hale, P. C. 535.
(*y*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 40; Penal Servitude Act, 1891.
(*z*) Larceny Act, 1861, ss. 41, 42.

offensive weapon or instrument, or being in company with other persons, or who robs, and at the time of, or immediately before or after, such robbery wounds, beats, strikes, or uses personal violence to any person, may be sentenced to penal servitude *for life*, or not less than three years, if that species of punishment be awarded (*a*). But here, also, he may, at the discretion of the court, be sentenced to the alternative punishment of imprisonment, to the extent and in the manner already particularized (*b*); and to this (by a later provision) the infliction of *whipping* may be added (*c*).

In connection with the crime of robbery, may here be mentioned the provisions which have been framed to repress the offence of extorting by *threats* money and other valuables. And, first, (with the exception of the whipping,) the same punishments as last mentioned are awarded to the felonious act of sending, delivering, or uttering, or directly or indirectly causing to be received, knowing its contents, a letter or other writing demanding, with menaces and without reasonable or probable cause, any property, chattel, money, valuable security, or other valuable thing (*d*); also, penal servitude from three to five years, or imprisonment to the extent of two, is awarded to anyone who demands with menaces or by force any property, chattel, money, valuable security, or valuable thing, with intent to steal the same (*e*). Moreover, penal servitude for life, or for not less than three years, or the alternative sentence of imprisonment for not more than two years—with or without hard labour, solitary confinement and whipping—may be awarded to any person who commits the felonious crime of sending, delivering, or uttering, or directly or indirectly causing to be received by any other person, a letter or writing, accusing or threatening to accuse any one of some crime punishable

(*a*) Penal Servitude Act, 1891.
(*b*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 43.
(*c*) Garrotters Act, 1863.
(*d*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 44.
(*e*) *Ibid.* s. 45; Penal Servitude Act, 1891.

by law with death or with penal servitude for not less than seven years, or of an assault or attempt or endeavour to commit any rape or infamous crime (*f*); but it must appear, that the person accused knew of its contents, and acted with a view or intent thereby to extort or gain something from some person (*g*). And the same punishments may be awarded to any one who shall accuse or threaten to accuse either the person to whom such accusation or threat shall be made, or any other person, of any of the above crimes, with the view or intent of such extortion or gain, either from the person accused or threatened, or from any other person (*h*); and (with the exception of the *whipping*) may be awarded to anyone who, with intent to defraud or injure another, shall, by unlawful violence, restraint, or threat to the person of another, or by accusing or threatening to accuse him of any treason, felony, or infamous crime, compel or induce him to execute, make, accept, indorse, alter, or destroy, any valuable security, or to affix his name, or the name of any other person, or of any company, firm, or co-partnership, or the seal of any corporation or society, to any paper or parchment, in order that the same may be converted into a valuable security (*i*).

4. *Larceny and embezzlement by clerks, etc.*—Special provision against larcenies of this character was made by the 33 Hen. VI. (1455), c. 1 and 21 Hen. VIII. (1529), c. 7; but both of these Acts were repealed by the 7 & 8 Geo. IV. (1826), c. 27. By the enactment at present in force on the subject, which is contained in the Larceny Act, 1861, s. 67, whoever, being a clerk or servant, or person employed in the capacity of a clerk or servant, shall steal any chattel, money, or valuable security, belonging to or in the possession or power of his master,

(*f*) *R.* v. *Gilgannon* (1899), 63 J. P. 457.

(*g*) Larceny Act, 1861, ss. 46, 49.

(*h*) Sect. 47.

(*i*) Sect. 48.

shall be guilty of felony, and liable to penal servitude for a term not exceeding fourteen years, nor less than five (now three) years; or he may be imprisoned (with or without hard labour or solitary confinement) for a term not exceeding two years, and (if a male under the age of sixteen) may be whipped (*k*). And if such larceny be committed by one employed in the public service of his Majesty, or by a constable or other person employed in the police,—the thing stolen belonging to or being in the possession or power of his Majesty, or entrusted to or received by the thief in virtue of his employment,—the same punishments as last mentioned (with the exception of whipping) may be awarded (*l*). In addition to these provisions, there are separate enactments against *embezzlement*, a crime distinguished from larceny (properly so called), as being committed in respect of property which is not, at the time, in the actual or legal possession of the owner (*m*). As to this offence, it is enacted, that whoever, being a clerk or servant, shall fraudulently embezzle any chattel, money, or valuable security, delivered to or received by him, or taken into his possession, for or in the name or on the account of his master, shall be deemed to have feloniously stolen the same, and be punished accordingly (*n*); and similar penalties attach if the offender is employed in the service of his Majesty or in the police, and shall have been entrusted by virtue of such employment with the receipt, custody, management, or control of what he embezzles (*o*). Where the act of embezzlement has been committed by an officer or servant of the Bank of England or Ireland, in respect of some security, money, or effects lodged at the Bank, or with such officer or servant, the term of penal servitude may be for *life* (*p*).

(*k*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 67.

(*l*) Sect. 69; *R.* v. *Moah* (1856), 25 L. J. M. C. 66.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Gill* (1854), Dears. C. C. 289.

(*n*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 68; *R.* v. *Negus* (1873), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 34; *R.* v. *Foulkes* (1875), *ib.* 150.

(*o*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 70.

(*p*) Sect. 73.

On an indictment for larceny, the prisoner may be convicted of embezzlement, and *vice versâ* (*q*). With regard to fraudulent appropriations by *agents* and others, not amounting in legal contemplation either to larceny or to felonious embezzlement, but still proper to be repressed by highly penal enactments, other provisions have been made. The Larceny Act, 1861, provided that any person entrusted with money or valuable security, in the capacity of *banker*, *merchant*, *broker*, *attorney*, or other *agent*, and *with a written direction* to apply the same in some specified manner, who should, in violation of good faith and contrary to such direction, convert the same to the use or benefit of anyone other than the person by whom he was so entrusted, should be guilty of a *misdemeanor*, and for such offence be sentenced to penal servitude for a term not exceeding seven years, nor less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment not exceeding two years with or without hard labour and solitary confinement (*r*). Again, if a chattel or valuable security, or power of attorney for the sale or transfer of a share or interest in any stock or fund, is entrusted to a banker, merchant, broker, attorney, or other agent, either for safe custody or for some special purpose, and he, in violation of good faith and contrary to such purpose, sells, negotiates, transfers, pledges, or in any manner converts the same to the use or benefit of anyone other than him by whom he was entrusted, every such offender shall incur the same penalties as are imposed in the case last before mentioned (*s*). But these enactments relative to *agents* were not to be construed to affect a *trustee* or *mortgagee* in respect of an act done by him in relation to the property comprised in the trust or mortgage; or to restrain a

(*q*) Sect. 72.

(*r*) Sect. 75; *R.* v. *Portugal* (1885), 16 Q. B. D. 487; *R.* v. *Robson* (1885), *ib.* 137; *Re Bellencontre*, [1891] 2 Q. B. 122.

(*s*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 75; *R.* v. *Christian* (1873), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 94; *R.* v. *Tatlock* (1876), 2 Q. B. D. 157.

banker, merchant, broker, attorney, or other agent, from receiving money due upon any valuable security, in such manner as he might otherwise have lawfully done, or from disposing of securities or effects in his possession, upon which he should have a lien, claim, or demand, which entitled him to dispose thereof, unless such disposal should extend to more than should be requisite for satisfying such lien, claim, or demand. Also, any banker, merchant, broker, attorney, or agent, entrusted with any *property* (which expression includes *money*), for safe custody, or with any power of attorney for the sale or transfer of any property, who fraudulently converts or appropriates the same to the use or benefit of anyone other than the person by whom he was entrusted, is guilty of a misdemeanor, and is punishable in like manner and to the like extent as for the misdemeanor last before mentioned (*t*). And any *factor* or agent entrusted with the possession of goods or documents of title to goods, who, without the authority of his principal, for the use or benefit of any third person, and in violation of good faith, makes any consignment, deposit, transfer, or delivery of such goods or documents, by way of a pledge or security for money or valuable security borrowed by such factor or agent, or who accepts advances on the faith of an agreement to pledge such goods or documents, incurs the same penalties as in the two former cases; but no factor or agent is to be liable to prosecution for consigning, depositing, transferring, or delivering such goods or documents, provided the same shall not be made a security for more than the amount justly owing to him at the time from his principal, together with the amount of any bill drawn by or on account of the principal, and accepted by the factor or agent (*u*).

(*t*) Sects. 76, 77; *R.* v. *Fullagar* (1879), 14 Cox C. C. 370; 41 L. T. (N.S.) 448.

(*u*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 78.

But even these provisions (and in particular the requirement of a *direction in writing* as to the disposal of a client's money) were found insufficient to meet some cases of fraudulent misappropriation by solicitors and others; and so sections 75 and 76 of the Larceny Act, 1861, were repealed by the Larceny Act, 1901, and in their place were substituted still wider provisions. Consequently, since January 1st, 1902, anyone who fraudulently converts to his own, or to another's use, property which he has received for or on account of a third person, or with which he has been entrusted in order that he may retain it in safe custody, or apply, pay, or deliver it for any purpose or to any third person, is guilty of a misdemeanor punishable by penal servitude for a term not exceeding seven years, or to imprisonment with or without hard labour for a term not exceeding two years (*x*).

In addition to all these provisions, it is also enacted, that the person offending in any of the cases following, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and punishable by penal servitude for not less than three nor more than seven years, or by imprisonment to the extent of two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, as for the misdemeanors already mentioned: 1. Any *trustee* of property for some other person, or for some public or charitable purpose, who shall, (with intent to defraud,) convert or appropriate or otherwise dispose of the same, to the use or benefit of anyone other than such person, or for any purpose other than that of the trust (*y*); 2. Any director, member, or public officer of any body corporate or public company, who shall fraudulently take or apply for his own use or benefit, or for any use or purpose other than the use or purpose of such body or company, any part of the property thereof (*z*); 3. Any director, public officer, or manager of such body or company, who shall, as

(*x*) Larceny Act, 1901, s. 1.
(*y*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 80.
(*z*) Sect. 81.

such, receive or possess himself of any of the property thereof (otherwise than in payment of a just debt or demand), and who shall, with intent to defraud, omit to enter the same in the books and accounts (*a*), or who shall make, circulate, or publish, or concur in making, circulating, or publishing, any written statement or account, which he shall know to be false in some material particular, either with intent to deceive or defraud any member shareholder or creditor of such body or company, or with intent to induce any person to become a shareholder or partner therein, or to entrust or advance money or property to such body or company, or to enter into some security for the benefit thereof (*b*); and 4. Any director, manager, public officer, or member of such body or company, who shall (with intent to defraud) destroy, alter, mutilate, or falsify any of its books, papers, writings, or valuable securities, or who shall (with such intent) make, or concur in the making of, a false entry, or material omission, in any book of account or other document (*c*). There is, moreover, a provision that no criminal proceeding in respect of the above misdemeanors shall affect any remedy, at law or in equity, which a person aggrieved by them might otherwise have had, nor shall the conviction be receivable in evidence for any purpose in such civil proceeding (*d*); and the criminal proceeding is not to affect any agreement or security given by a trustee, having for its object the restoration or repayment of trust property misappropriated (*e*). But no such prosecution as aforesaid

(*a*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 82.

(*b*) Sect. 84.

(*c*) Sect. 83.

(*d*) Sect. 86.

(*e*) *Ibid.* See also (as to larcenies of partnership property) the Larceny Act, 1868, s. 1; (as to the misappropriation of municipal funds) the Municipal Corporations Mortgages, etc. Act, 1860, s. 7, and Statute Law Revision (Substituted Enactments) Act, 1876, s. 3; (as to embezzlement of the property of Trade Unions) the Trade Union Act, 1871, s. 12, and the Trade Union Act Amendment Act, 1876, s. 5; (or of friendly societies) the Friendly Societies Act, 1896, s. 87; (or of industrial societies)

against a trustee may be undertaken without the sanction of the Attorney-General or (failing him) of the Solicitor-General; and in case any civil proceeding in respect of the breach of trust shall have been commenced against the trustee, no prosecution may be instituted against him, without the sanction of the judge before whom the civil proceeding is (or has been) pending (*f*).

5. *Larcenies, etc., in relation to the Post Office.*—By the Post Office (Offences) Act, 1837, s. 25, every person employed under the Post Office, who shall, contrary to his duty, open, or procure or suffer to be opened, or wilfully detain or delay, or procure or suffer to be detained or delayed, a post letter, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor; and may be punished by fine or imprisonment, or both. And every person so employed, who shall steal, or for any purpose embezzle, secrete, or destroy a post letter, shall (by sect. 26) be guilty of felony, and be punishable with penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than five (now three) years, or with imprisonment (with or without hard labour and solitary confinement) for not more than two years; and if the letter contain any chattel, money, or valuable security, then the term of penal servitude may be *for life* (*g*). Again, every person so employed, who shall steal, or, for any purpose embezzle, secrete, or destroy, or wilfully detain or delay in the course of conveyance or delivery by post, any printed votes or proceedings in parliament, or any printed newspaper or other printed paper sent by the post without covers, or in covers open at the sides, shall (by sect. 32) be guilty of a misdemeanor punishable by fine or imprisonment,

the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1893, s. 64; and (as to voluntary (non-profit) societies) *R.* v. *Robson* (1885), 16 Q. B. D. 137.

(*f*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 80.

(*g*) Post Office (Offences) Act, 1837, ss. 25, 41, 42; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1; *R.* v. *Rathbone* (1841), Car. & M. 220; *R.* v. *Reason* (1853), Dears. C. C. 226; and *R.* v. *Shepherd* (1856) *ib.* 606.

or both. Also, by the Post Office (Money Orders) Act, 1848, s. 4, every officer of the Post Office who shall grant or issue any *money order* with a fraudulent intent, shall be guilty of felony, and be liable to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment for any term not exceeding three years ; and by the Post Office (Money Orders) Act, 1880, ss. 3, 4, there are the like provisions regarding *postal orders*. The provisions to which we have been hitherto referring relate only to offences by persons employed in the Post Office ; but by other enactments, *any* person who shall steal out of a post letter any chattel or money or valuable security, or who shall steal a post letter-bag, or a post letter from a post letter-bag, or from a post office or officer of the post, or a mail, or who shall stop a mail with intent to rob or search the same, shall be guilty of felony, and may be sentenced to the same punishments as for the felony last before mentioned (*h*). And any person who shall steal or unlawfully take away a post letter-bag sent by post office packet, or a letter out of such bag, or who shall unlawfully open any such bag, shall be guilty of felony, and may be sentenced to the same punishments ; except that, if by way of penal servitude, the term must not exceed fourteen years (*i*). And any person who shall fraudulently retain, or wilfully secrete, or keep, or detain, or who shall neglect or refuse to deliver up (on being required so to do by some officer of the Post Office) a post letter which ought to have been delivered to some other person, or who shall neglect or refuse to deliver up a post letter-bag, or post letter which shall have been sent and lost, and which shall have come into his possession, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and be punishable with fine and imprisonment (*k*).

(*h*) Post Office (Offences) Act, 1837, ss. 27, 28, 41, 42 ; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1 ; *R.* v. *Harley* (1843), 1 Car. & K. 89.

(*i*) Post Office (Offences) Act, 1837, ss. 29, 41, 42 ; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1 ; *R.* v. *Jones* (1846), 2 Car. & K. 236.

(*k*) Post Office (Offences) Act, 1837, s. 31.

Having now considered the several kinds of larcenies, whether simple or with aggravation, we must refer, under the same head, to the offence (so closely connected with larceny itself) of *receiving stolen property knowing the same to have been stolen.* This offence was, at common law, a misdemeanor only, but was afterwards made felony by several statutes since repealed ; and under the existing law, which is contained in the Larceny Act, 1861, s. 91, whoever shall receive any chattel, money, or valuable security, or other property whatever (knowing the same to have been feloniously stolen, taken, extorted, obtained, embezzled, or disposed of), the stealing, taking, extorting, obtaining, embezzling, or otherwise disposing whereof, shall amount to *felony*, either by common law or by virtue of that Act, shall himself be guilty of felony, and that whether the receiving be for concealment only or by way of gain (*l*). He may be indicted and convicted either as an accessory after the fact, or for a substantive felony ; and that whether the principal felon shall or shall not have been previously convicted or shall or shall not be amenable to justice. Such guilty receiver is liable to penal servitude for a term not exceeding fourteen years nor less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment, (with or without hard labour and solitary confinement,) for a term not exceeding two years ; and (if a male under the age of sixteen) he may also be whipped. But if the thing received was such that its stealing, taking, obtaining, converting, or disposal is only a *misdemeanor* by the Larceny Act, 1861, then its guilty reception is a misdemeanor only, and is punishable with penal servitude to the extent of seven years, or by imprisonment, as in the case of the felonious offence (*m*). And where the stealing or taking of the property guiltily received is punishable by the same Act by way of summary conviction, either for every offence, or for the first and

(*l*) *R.* v. *Richardson* (1834), 6 Car. & P. 335 ; *R.* v. *Davis* (1833), *ib.* 177.

(*m*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 95.

second offences only, or for the first offence only, the guilty receiver may also be summarily convicted, and is liable, for every first, second, or subsequent offence of *receiving*, to the same consequences as those to which a person guilty of a first, second, or subsequent offence of *stealing* (or criminally taking) such property is made liable (*n*). By the Larceny Act, 1896, any property stolen outside the United Kingdom is brought within the same category as property stolen within the United Kingdom. With the intention of removing, so far as possible, the temptation to this species of crime, it has been provided, by the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, ss. 10, 11, that every person occupying or keeping a lodging, beer, or public-house, or place of public entertainment or resort, or any brothel, who knowingly lodges or harbours therein *thieves* or *reputed* thieves, shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 10*l*., and in default of payment may be imprisoned for four months, with or without hard labour (*o*) ; and (by sect. 16) a power of search is given.

II. [*Malicious mischief.*—This offence is another species of injury to private property, which the law considers as a public crime ; and it is usually committed either out of a spirit of wanton cruelty, or from a spirit of black and diabolical revenge. In this particular it bears a near relation to the crime of arson ; for as that affects the habitation, so this affects the other property of individuals. And therefore any damage arising from this mischievous disposition, though only a trespass at common law, is by a multitude of enactments, now consolidated into a single statute, made highly penal.] The consolidating statute referred to (which is in substitution for the 7 & 8 Geo. IV. (1826), c. 30) is the Malicious Damage Act, 1861, "to consolidate and amend the statute

(*n*) Sect. 98.

(*o*) *Marshall* v. *Fox* (1871), L. R. 6 Q. B. 370.

"law relating to malicious injuries to property." But it is to be noted that, though malice is the usual motive for the crime, yet the statute equally applies, whether the offence is committed from malice conceived against the owner of the property or not (*p*). Among a multitude of other enactments, the statute makes specific provision against, and annexes specific punishments to, the following classes of malicious injuries to property, that is to say, malicious injuries to silk, woollen, linen, cotton, hair, mohair, or alpaca goods *in the process of manufacture*, or to the machines employed therein (*q*); to machines used in other manufactures (*r*); to hopbinds (*s*); to dwelling-houses and other buildings (*t*); to trees and shrubs adjoining dwelling-houses (*u*), or elsewhere (*x*); to garden produce (*y*) and to vegetable productions growing elsewhere (*z*); to fences (*a*); to mines (*b*), and to mining engines (*c*); to sea banks and walls (*d*); to navigable rivers and canals (*e*); to ponds (*f*); to bridges and

(*p*) *R.* v. *Child* (1871), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 307; *R.* v. *Pembliton* (1874), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 119.

(*q*) Sect. 14, felony, penal servitude for *life*. The penalties in this and the following notes are the maximum penalties of penal servitude for each offence. A sentence of penal servitude cannot be for less than three years, while imprisonment for not more than two is always an alternative punishment (Penal Servitude Act, 1891).

(*r*) Sect. 15, felony, *seven years*; *R.* v. *Fisher* (1866), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 7.

(*s*) Sect. 19, felony, *fourteen years*.

(*t*) Sects. 9, 10, felony, *life* or *fourteen years*, according to the mode of committing the offence.

(*u*) Sect. 20 (if injury done exceeds 1*l*.), felony, *five years*.

(*x*) Sect. 21 (if injury done exceeds 5*l*.), felony, *five years*. If, however, the injury to the tree, etc., *wherever* growing, do not amount to 1*s*., then a first offence is only punishable by way of summary conviction (sect. 22).

(*y*) Sect. 23, first offence, *summary conviction*; second offence, felony, penal servitude, *five years*.

(*z*) Sect. 24, *summary conviction*.

(*a*) Sect. 25, *summary conviction*.

(*b*) Sect. 28, felony, *seven years*.

(*c*) Sect. 29, felony, *seven years*.

(*d*) Sect. 30, felony, *life*.

(*e*) Sect. 31, felony, *seven years*.

(*f*) Sect. 32, felony, *seven years*.

viaducts (*g*); to turnpike gates (*h*); to railways and railway carriages or engines (*i*); to electric or magnetic telegraphs (*k*); to works of art or literature in public places (*l*); to cattle (*m*) or other animals (*n*); to ships and vessels (*o*); to buoys and sea marks (*p*); and to wrecks (*q*). And all of these injuries are made,—according to their several degrees of mischief or malignity,—either felonies or misdemeanors, or else offences such as may be disposed of, by way of summary conviction, before a justice of the peace. Where the prisoner is convicted *on indictment* for either a felony or a misdemeanor under the Act, the punishment (when it is by way of imprisonment) may be for two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, and (in the case of a male under sixteen) with whipping.

The Act contains also a general provision, that whosoever shall unlawfully and maliciously commit any damage, injury, or spoil to or upon any real or personal property whatever, either of a public or private nature, for which it provides no other punishment, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, provided the injury shall exceed the value of 5*l*., and be liable to imprisonment (with or without hard labour) to the extent of two years; and if the offence be committed *by night*, the offender may be sentenced either to such imprisonment or to penal servitude to the extent of five (now three) years (*r*). In cases where the damage does *not* exceed the value of 5*l*., the offender may be summarily convicted before a justice of the peace, and may

(*g*) Sect. 33, felony, *life*.

(*h*) Sect. 34, misdemeanor, *fine and imprisonment as at common law*.

(*i*) Sect. 35, felony, *life*.

(*k*) Sects. 37, 38, misdemeanor, *two years' imprisonment*.

(*l*) Sect. 39, misdemeanor, *six months' imprisonment*.

(*m*) Sect. 40, felony, *fourteen years*.

(*n*) Sect. 41, *summary conviction*.

(*o*) Sects. 42—47, felony, *life, fourteen or seven years*.

(*p*) Sect. 48, felony, *seven years*.

(*q*) Sect. 49, felony, *fourteen years*.

(*r*) Sect. 51; *R.* v. *Pembliton* (1874), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 119.

either be committed to prison (with or without hard labour) to the extent of two months, or else may forfeit such sum of money (not exceeding five pounds) as shall appear to the justice to be a reasonable compensation for the damage committed (*s*), which sum, in the case of damage to private property, shall be paid to the party aggrieved, but, when property of a public nature or a public right is concerned, shall be paid over to the treasurer of the county, borough, or place for which the convicting justice acts (*t*). But nothing in either of these provisions extends to any case where the party trespassing acted under a fair and reasonable supposition that he had a right to do the act complained of, nor to any trespass, (not being wilful or malicious,) committed in hunting or fishing, or in the pursuit of game (*u*). Other subsequent Acts have from time to time been passed, dealing with malicious injuries caused by the use of some specific agent of an explosive character ; but among these we can only now refer to the Explosives Act, 1875, and to the Explosive Substances Act, 1883.

III. [*Forgery.*—This offence (which is called also the *crimen falsi*) was punished by the civil law with deportation or banishment, and sometimes with death (*x*). It may with us be defined to be, the fraudulent making or alteration of a writing, to the prejudice of another man's right ; or of a stamp, to the prejudice of the revenue (*y*).] The instrument forged must so far resemble the true instrument as to be capable of deceiving persons who use ordinary observation (*z*) ; but any material alteration

(*s*) Sect. 52. See *Gayford* v. *Choulet*, [1898] 1 Q. B. 316 (trampling down grass) ; contrast *Gardner* v. *Mansbridge* (1887), 19 Q. B. D. 217 (picking wild mushrooms).

(*t*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1848, s. 31.

(*u*) Malicious Damage Act, 1861, ss. 52, 53 ; *R.* v. *Clemens*, [1898] 1 Q. B. 556.

(*x*) 4 Inst. 18, 7.

(*y*) 2 East, P. C. c. xix. s. 60.

(*z*) *R.* v. *Collicott* (1812), Russ. & R. 212, 229.

(however slight) is a forgery, as well as an entire fabrication (*a*). The fraudulent application of a false signature to a true instrument, and of a real signature to a false one, are forgeries (*b*); and even if the name forged be merely a fictitious one, it is as much forgery, if done for the purpose of fraud, as if the name were that of a real person (*c*). If the forgery is of another man's writing, he may be called to prove that the writing is not his, or the fact may be established by other witnesses who are acquainted with the real handwriting. And it is now established, that the evidence of professional experts in handwriting, who can point out differences between disputed and genuine handwriting, is admissible (*d*).

At common law, this offence was a misdemeanor only. But when, in the progress of society, the perpetration of it became more easy, and its tendencies more dangerous, it became necessary to assign to it a more penal character, as regards those instruments which most required protection; and accordingly the Forgery Act, 1861, was passed, which consolidated and amended the law relating to forgery. By that Act, (amended as to stock certificates and coupons by the Forgery Act, 1870, and as to treasury bills by the Treasury Bills Act, 1877, and as to money orders and postal orders by the Post Office (Money Orders) Act, 1880,) provision is made against the felonious offence of forging the great seal of the United Kingdom, the privy seal or any privy signet, the sign-manual, the seals of Scotland, or the great seal and privy seal of Ireland (*e*). The Act also makes it a felony to forge any stamp, exchequer bill, treasury bill (*f*), Bank of

(*a*) 2 East, P. C. c. xix. s. 4.

(*b*) 3 Chitty, *Crim. Law*, 1038, citing 1 Hale, P. C. 683; *R.* v. *Ritson* (1869), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 200.

(*c*) *R.* v. *Bontien* (1813), Russ. & R. 260; *Dunn's Case* (1765), 1 Leach, 59; *R.* v. *Martin* (1879), 5 Q. B. D. 34.

(*d*) *R.* v. *Silverlock*, [1894] 2 Q. B. 766, at p. 771; *R.* v. *Williams* (1838), 8 Car. & P. 434.

(*e*) Forgery Act, 1861, s. 1.

(*f*) Sect. 8.

England or other note, bill of exchange, promissory note, deed (*g*), will, receipt (*h*), order for the payment of money (*i*), postal order, money order, transfer of stock, stock certificates, coupons, records or proceedings of courts, court rolls, registers of deeds, registers of births, marriages, and deaths, marriage licences, and a variety of other documents, comprising indeed all that are in the most ordinary use in the transactions of mankind. The Act attaches also a felonious character to the offence of merely having in one's possession, without lawful excuse, any forged bank-note, or the like, knowing it to be forged (*k*), or any frames, moulds, plates, paper, etc., used in making bank-notes, or any paper with the name of any bank visible on the substance thereof (*l*).

The punishment of forging, uttering, and the like at common law, or in those instances in which the offence was made by statute a misdemeanor, was fine, imprisonment, and the pillory; but in those instances in which the offence was by statute a felony, the punishment was death. Capital punishment, however, having been previously taken away with regard to many cases of forgery, by the Forgery Act, 1830, and the 2 & 3 Will. IV. (1831) c. 123, was altogether abolished, as a punishment for this offence, by the Forgery Act, 1837. And now, under the Forgery Act, 1861, the felon convicted of any of the forgeries provided against by that Act, may be sentenced to penal servitude, the extreme term which may be awarded varying according to the document forged; or else (at the discretion of the court) to imprisonment for not more than two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement (*m*).

(*g*) *R.* v. *Ritson* (1869), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 200; *R.* v. *Morton* (1873), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 22.

(*h*) *R.* v. *French* (1870), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 217.

(*i*) *R.* v. *Chambers* (1871), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 341.

(*k*) Forgery Act, 1861, s. 13.

(*l*) Sects. 14, 18.

(*m*) The following are the severest sentences which may be given by way of penal servitude for the different forgeries pro-

The same statute contains also enactments against other practices *connected* with, or aiding in the perpetration of, the crime of forgery; and these also in most cases are made felonies, and are punishable with penal servitude or imprisonment. Of these, our limits will not allow us to give a complete enumeration, but they comprise the following :- -making paper, etc., in imitation of that used for exchequer bills or bonds (*n*); purchasing or receiving forged notes, bank paper, or bills (*o*); making or engraving plates, moulds, etc., for bank-notes (*p*); writing acceptances across bills, notes, etc., without authority and with intent to defraud (*q*); obliterating or altering crossings on cheques or drafts, signifying that they are to be paid through a banker (*r*); falsely acknowledging recognizances or

vided against by the Forgery Act, 1861: (sect. 1) forging, etc. the Seals, *life;* (sect. 2) stock transfers or powers of attorney, *life:* (sect. 4) attestation of stock transfers or powers of attorney, *seven years:* (sect. 5) entries in the books of the bank of England or Ireland, *life;* (sect. 7) India bonds, *life;* (sect. 8) exchequer bills, bonds, etc., *life;* (sect. 12) bank notes, *life;* (sect. 20) deeds, *life;* (sect. 21) wills, *life;* (sect. 22) bills of exchange or promissory notes, *life;* (sect. 23) orders, receipts, etc. for money, *life;* (sect. 26) debentures, *fourteen years;* (sect. 27) records or proceedings of courts, *seven years:* (sect. 28) copies or certificates of records, etc. or process, *seven years:* (sect. 29) instruments made evidence by Act of Parliament, *seven years* (see Documentary Evidence Act, 1882, s. 3); (sect. 30) court rolls relating to copyholds, *life;* (sect. 31) registers of deeds, *fourteen years;* (sect. 32) orders of justices of the peace, *five years* (see Penal Servitude Act, 1891); (sect. 33) certificates, etc. of accountant-general, etc., *fourteen years;* (sect. 35) marriage licences, *seven years;* (sects. 36, 37) registers of births, baptisms, marriages, deaths, or burials, *life*. In all of the above forgeries, however, punishment by way of imprisonment, instead of penal servitude, may be awarded at the discretion of the court to the extent of two years, and with or without hard labour and solitary confinement.

(*n*) Forgery Act, 1861, ss. 9, 10, *seven years*.

(*o*) Sect. 13, *fourteen years*.

(*p*) Sects. 14—19, *fourteen years;* and see (as to having possession of dies for making postage stamps) the Post Office (Protection) Act, 1884, s. 7; *Dickins* v. *Gill*, [1896] 2 Q. B. 310.

(*q*) Forgery Act, 1861, s. 24, *fourteen years*.

(*r*) Sect. 25, *life*.

bail (*s*); and demanding (with intent to defraud) property on any forged instrument (*t*).

By the Merchandise Marks Acts, 1887 and 1891, it is provided (among other things), that every person who forges any trade-mark, or who falsely applies to goods any trade-mark, or any mark so nearly resembling a trade-mark as to be calculated to deceive (*u*); or who makes any die, block, machine, or other instrument, for the purpose of forging (or of being used for forging) a trade-mark; or who applies any false trade description to goods; or who disposes of, or has in his possession, any die, block, machine, or other instrument for the purpose of forging a trade-mark, or who causes any of these things to be done,—shall, subject to the provisions of the Act, and *unless he proves that he acted without intent to defraud* (*x*), be guilty of an offence against the Act; and, in the case of imported goods, the customs entry is a trade-mark. Every person guilty of an offence against the Act, is made liable (1) in the case of any conviction on indictment, to imprisonment with or without hard labour, for a term not exceeding two years, or to fine, or to both imprisonment and fine; and (2) in the case of a conviction on summary proceedings, to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for a term not exceeding four months, or to a fine not exceeding twenty pounds, and in the case of a second or subsequent conviction to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for a term not exceeding six months, or to a fine not exceeding fifty pounds. In either case, he forfeits to his Majesty every chattel, article, instrument, or thing, by means of or in relation to which the offence has been committed; and the court before whom any person is so convicted may order any such forfeited

(*s*) Sect. 34, *seven years*.

(*t*) Sect. 38, *fourteen years*. See also the Companies Act, 1867, s. 36, as to engraving *share warrants* or *coupons*.

(*u*) *Starey* v. *Chilworth Gunpowder Co.* (1889), 24 Q. B. D. 90; *Wood* v. *Burgess* (1890), *ib.* 162.

(*x*) *Coppen* v. *Moore* (No. 2), [1898] 2 Q. B. 306.

articles to be destroyed or otherwise disposed of as the court thinks fit. But any one aggrieved may appeal from the court of summary jurisdiction to the court of quarter sessions (sect. 2). The prosecution may, in a proper case, be conducted by the Board of Trade.

IV. *Obtaining property by false personation.*—Frauds of this description were indictable, at common law, as misdemeanors, and were then punishable by fine and imprisonment (*y*); but they are now also made penal by the express provisions of certain acts of parliament. For to personate any soldier, in order fraudulently to receive his pay, pension, prize money, or wages, is felony; and is punishable with imprisonment to the extent of two years (with or without hard labour), or with penal servitude for life or for not less than three years (*z*). And to personate another in order to receive pay, prize money, or other allowance from the Admiralty, is a misdemeanor punishable by five years penal servitude (*a*). Falsely and deceitfully to personate the owner of any share or interest in stock of the Bank of England or of Ireland, or of any corporation or society established by charter or Act of Parliament, or the owner of any dividend payable in respect thereof, and thereby to endeavour to transfer the share or to receive the money due to the true owner, is a felony punishable by penal servitude for life or for not less than three years, or by imprisonment not exceeding two years with or without hard labour (*b*). Moreover, by the False Personation Act, 1874, if any person shall falsely and deceitfully personate any person, or his representative, wife, widow, next of kin, or relation, with intent fraudulently to obtain any land, estate, chattel, money, valuable

(*y*) 2 East, P. C. c. xx. s. 6.

(*z*) Chelsea and Kilmainham Hospitals Act, 1826, s. 38; Army Prize Money Act, 1832, s. 49; Penal Servitude Acts, 1857 and 1891. Compare s. 142 of the Army Act, 1881.

(*a*) Admiralty Powers, etc. Act, 1865, s. 8.

(*b*) Forgery Act, 1861, s. 3; Companies Act, 1867, s. 35.

security, or property, he shall be guilty of felony, and liable to penal servitude for life or not less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment with or without hard labour, or solitary confinement, to the extent of two years.

V. *Obtaining property by false pretences.*—This offence, which is closely allied to larceny, though distinguishable from it as being perpetrated through the medium of a mere *fraud*, was, at the common law, a misdemeanor punishable by fine and imprisonment. But now, under the provisions of the Larceny Act, 1861, s. 88, whoever shall, by any false pretence (*c*), obtain from another any chattel, money, or valuable security (*d*), with intent to cheat or defraud any person of the same, is liable to penal servitude for not less than three or more than five years; or he may be punished by imprisonment not exceeding two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement. And if, upon the trial of any person indicted for such a misdemeanor, it shall be proved that he obtained the property in question in such manner as to amount in law to *larceny*, he shall not by reason thereof be entitled to be acquitted on such indictment. The penalties above specified are also to attach to any one who shall, with intent to defraud or injure any person, fraudulently by false pretence cause or induce another to execute, make, accept, endorse, or destroy the whole or part of any valuable security, or to write or affix his name, or that of any other person or persons, or the seal of a corporation or society, upon or to any paper or parchment, in order that the same may be made or converted into a valuable security (*e*). Obtaining credit by false pretences,—*e.g.*,

(*c*) *R.* v. *Crossley* (1837), 2 Moo. & R. 17; *R.* v. *Ady* (1835), 7 Car. & P. 140; *R.* v. *Asterley* (1835), *ib.* 191; *R.* v. *Barnard* (1837), 7 Car. & P. 784; *R.* v. *Kilham* (1870), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 261; *R.* v. *Francis* (1874), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 128.

(*d*) *R.* v. *Greenhalgh* (1854), Dears. C. C. 267; *R.* v. *Gordon* (1889), 23 Q. B. D. 354; *R.* v. *Silverlock*, [1894] 2 Q. B. 766.

(*e*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 90.

ordering a meal at a restaurant when without means to pay for it (*f*),—is a misdemeanor under the Debtors Act, 1869, s. 13, and is punishable by one year's imprisonment.

It is of the utmost importance to bear in mind that "false pretences" means fraudulent representation *as an existing fact* of that which is not an existing fact (*g*), and that consequently a mere promise of future conduct—*e.g.*, that the party *will* do an act he does not mean to do—will not suffice.

VI. *Fraudulent concealment of deeds, and falsification of pedigree.*—By the Law of Property Amendment Act, 1859, s. 24 (amended by the Law of Property Amendment Act, 1860, s. 8), any seller or mortgagor of land, or of chattels real or personal, or of choses in action, conveyed or assigned to a purchaser or mortgagee—or the solicitor or agent of such seller or mortgagor,—who (with intent to defraud) shall conceal any settlement, deed, will, or other instrument material to the title, or who shall conceal any incumbrance, from the purchaser or mortgagee, or falsify any pedigree upon which the title depends, in order to induce the purchaser or mortgagee to accept the title, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor punishable with fine or with imprisonment not exceeding two years (with or without hard labour), or with both. But no prosecution for this offence is to be commenced without the sanction of the Attorney-General, or (in case that office be vacant) the Solicitor-General.

VII. *Falsification of accounts.*—By the Larceny Act, 1861, as amended by the Falsification of Accounts Act, 1875, if a clerk, officer, or servant shall wilfully, and with intent to defraud, destroy, alter, mutilate, or falsify a

(*f*) *R.* v. *Jones*, [1898] 1 Q. B. 119.

(*g*) *Cf.* Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1899, s. 3; *R.* v. *Hazelton* (1874), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 134.

book, paper, writing, valuable security, or account belonging to or in the possession of his employer, or which has been received into his custody for his employer; or if (with such intent) he shall make or concur in making a false entry, or in omitting or altering any material particular therein or in any document or account,—he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and be liable to penal servitude to the extent of seven years, or imprisonment with or without hard labour for not exceeding two years.

VIII. *Offences relating to the coin.*—These offences may be either, first, offences relating to the coin *of this realm*; or, secondly, offences relating to the coin of *foreign states*.

First, *Offences relating to the coin of this realm.* These offences are now comprised in the Coinage Offences Act, 1861, which statute repeals, so far as the United Kingdom is concerned (*h*), the 2 & 3 Will. IV. (1831), c. 34, by which this subject was previously regulated. The existing law may be stated as follows:—

(A.) *With respect to gold and silver coin.*—The provisions of the statute are:—

1. Whoever shall falsely make or counterfeit any coin, resembling, or apparently intended to resemble or pass for, any of the current gold or silver coin of the realm, shall be guilty of felony (*i*).

2. Whoever shall gild or silver, (or colour with wash or materials capable of producing the colour of gold or silver, or by other means,) a coin, resembling or intended to pass for some current gold or silver coin, or a piece of silver or copper, or of coarse gold or silver, or of any metal or mixture of metals (of a fit size and figure to be

(*h*) In certain of the *colonies*, however, the 2 & 3 Will. 4, c. 34, remains still in force, its provisions having been (by the Coinage (Colonial Offences) Act, 1853) extended to those colonies in which local provisions, with respect to offences relating to the coin of this realm, have not been made.

(*i*) Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 2.

coined), with intent that the same shall be coined into false coin, resembling or intended to pass for some current gold or silver coin; or who shall gild, silver, or colour any current silver or copper coin (or file or alter the same), with intent to make it resemble or pass for any other current gold or silver coin,—shall, in any of the above cases, be guilty of felony (*k*).

3. Whoever, without lawful authority or excuse, shall buy, sell, receive, pay, or put off a false gold or silver coin, at a lower rate than the same by its denomination imports, or shall receive into the United Kingdom any such false coin, knowing the same to be counterfeit—shall, in either case, be guilty of felony (*l*).

4. Whoever, without lawful authority or excuse, shall knowingly make or mend, or buy or sell, or have in his custody or possession, or shall convey out of the Royal Mints, any coining moulds, machines, or tools, or shall convey out of such Mints any coin, buillion, metal, or mixture of metals,—shall, in any of such cases, be guilty of felony (*m*).

As regards all the above four felonious offences, the punishment is either penal servitude for life or for any term not less than three years, or imprisonment for any term not more than two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement (*n*); and in all convictions under the Coinage Offences Act, 1861, the convicting judge may also bind over the offender to keep the peace (*o*).

5. Whosoever shall impair, diminish, or lighten current gold or silver coin, with intent that the coin so altered

(*k*) Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 3; *R.* v. *Turner* (1838), 2 Mood. 42.

(*l*) Sects. 6, 7; *R.* v. *Joyce* (1814), 3 Car. & P. 411 *n.*; and see the Revenue Act, 1889, s. 2, prohibiting the importation of imitation coins generally.

(*m*) Coinage Offences Act, 1861, ss. 24, 25; *R.* v. *Harvey* (1871), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 284.

(*n*) Sects. 2, 3, 6, 7, 24, 25; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1.

(*o*) Sect. 38.

may pass for current gold or silver coin, shall be guilty of felony; and he is liable to penal servitude for any term not less than five (now three) years, nor more than fourteen years, or he may be imprisoned as above (*p*).

6. Whosoever shall unlawfully have in his custody or possession filings, clippings, bullion dust, or solution, which he knows to have been produced or obtained by impairing, diminishing, or lightening the current gold or silver coin, shall be guilty of felony, and punished by imprisonment as above, or by penal servitude for not less than five (now three) years, nor more than seven years (*q*).

7. Whoever shall tender, utter, or put off a false or counterfeit gold or silver coin, knowing the same to be false or counterfeit, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor; and may be imprisoned for any term not exceeding one year, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement (*r*). If, at the time of so uttering such counterfeit coin, the offender shall have in his possession any other such counterfeit coin, or shall, either on the day of such uttering, or within ten days afterwards, utter any more such false coins (knowing the same to be false), the imprisonment may be for any term not exceeding two years (*s*). Also, if any person shall have in his possession three or more pieces of such counterfeit gold or silver coin, knowing the same to be counterfeit, and with intent to utter the same, he may be sentenced to penal servitude for not less than three nor more than five years, or imprisonment not exceeding two years (*t*); and upon a second conviction for any of these misdemeanors, he shall be deemed guilty of felony, and is liable to be kept in penal servitude for life (*u*).

8. And whoever shall (with intent to defraud) tender, utter, or put off, as for current gold or silver coin, some

(*p*) Sect. 4.
(*q*) Sect. 5.
(*r*) Sect. 9.
(*s*) Sect. 10.
(*t*) Sect. 11.
(*u*) Sect. 12.

coin not being such current coin, or any medal or piece of metal resembling the current coin for which the same shall be tendered, being of less value than the same, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, punishable with imprisonment, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, to the extent of one year (*x*).

(B.) *With respect to copper coin* (including *bronze* coin) (*y*).—The provisions of the statute are :—

1. If any person shall falsely make or counterfeit a coin resembling any current copper coin, or shall, without lawful authority or excuse, make or mend, or begin to make or mend, buy or sell, or have in his custody or possession, any instrument, tool, or engine adapted for counterfeiting the current copper coin, or shall buy, receive, pay, or put off a false coin resembling any current copper coin, at a lower rate than its denomination imports, or was apparently intended to import,—he shall, in any of these cases, be guilty of felony, and may be sentenced to penal servitude for any term not more than seven nor less than five (now three) years, or be imprisoned for any term not more than two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement (*z*).

2. Whoever shall tender, utter, or put off a false coin intended to pass for some current copper coin, or shall have in his possession three or more pieces of false copper coin, knowing the same to be counterfeit, and with intent to utter the same,—shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and may be so imprisoned for any term not exceeding one year (*a*).

In addition to the above provisions, it is also enacted, that it shall be a misdemeanor, punishable by imprison-

(*x*) Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 13 ; *R.* v. *Robinson* (1865), 34 L. J. M. C. 176; *R.* v. *Forster* (1855), Dears. C. C. 456 ; *Jarvis's Case* (1855), *ib.* 552 ; *R.* v. *Martin* (1869), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 214.

(*y*) Sect. 1.

(*z*) Sect. 14.

(*a*) Sect. 15.

ment, with or without hard labour, to the extent of two years, for a person, without lawful authority, to *export* any false or counterfeit coin (*b*) ; and a misdemeanor so punishable to the extent of one year, to *deface* the current coin of this realm by stamping thereon names or words, whether such coin shall or shall not be thereby diminished or lightened. Coin so defaced or stamped, is not a legal tender ; and any person tendering or uttering it, may be summarily convicted before two justices, and fined forty shillings (*c*).

Secondly, *Offences relating to the coin of foreign states.* Whoever shall make or counterfeit any kind of coin not the current gold or silver coin of this country, but resembling or apparently intended to resemble or pass for *gold* or *silver* coin of some foreign state, or who shall, without lawful authority or excuse, bring or receive into the United Kingdom any such false coin, knowing the same to be counterfeit,—shall be guilty of felony, and may be sentenced to penal servitude for a term not more than seven nor less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, to the extent of two years (*d*). And if any one shall tender, utter, or put off such counterfeit foreign coin, knowing the same to be false, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and for the first offence may be imprisoned to the extent of six months (with or without hard labour), for the second offence, may be imprisoned for two years (with the addition of solitary confinement), and for the third offence, shall be deemed guilty of felony, and may then be sentenced to penal servitude for life or not less than three years, or to imprisonment for not more than two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement (*e*). And whoever shall counterfeit a

(*b*) Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 8.

(*c*) Sects. 16, 17.

(*d*) Sects. 18, 19; *R.* v. *Roberts* (1855). Dears. C. C. 539.

(*e*) Sects. 20, 21 ; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1.

foreign coin, intended to resemble some foreign *copper* or other coin made of metals or mixed metals of less value than silver, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and may be imprisoned for the first offence for any time not exceeding one year; and, on a second conviction, he is liable to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment not exceeding two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement (*f*). And whoever shall, without lawful excuse, have in his possession more than five pieces of *any* false foreign coin, may be convicted before a justice in a penalty of not more than forty nor less than ten shillings, in respect of every piece of such false coin so found in his possession, and in default of payment may be committed to prison for three months, or till the fine be paid; and all such base money is forfeited, and is to be destroyed by the authorities (*g*).

IX. *Fraudulent Debtors.*—Those fraudulent practices affecting the rights of property which are provided against by the law of bankruptcy are here only referred to, they having been already sufficiently dealt with in a former part of these Commentaries (*h*).

X. *Cheating.*—We may finally allude to the practice of criminal cheating in trade generally, to restrain and punish which a prodigious multitude of statutes have been passed applicable to particular businesses (*i*): moreover, the offence (already considered) of selling articles, knowing any trade marks thereon to be counterfeited, is reducible to this head of cheating, as is also the offence of *selling by false weights and measures* (*k*). But it seems that to con-

(*f*) Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 22.

(*g*) Sect. 23.

(*h*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. p. 201 *et seq.*

(*i*) By the Hay and Straw Act, 1856, provisions are made "to prevent false packing and other frauds in the hay and straw trade," which trade is regulated by the Hay and Straw Act, 1796.

(*k*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 42, 516, 517.

stitute a criminal cheat there must be unfair dealing which affects, or may affect, the public at large, and not merely a specified individual. The general punishment for all cheating indictable at common law (*l*), is fine and imprisonment (*m*); to which, by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, s. 29, hard labour may now be added. But if the cheating be only cheating by statute, the more usual way is to proceed by way of summary conviction, and then to levy, by way of distress and sale, the forfeiture or penalty imposed by the statute for the particular offence.

(*l*) *R.* v. *Wheatly* (1761), 2 Burr. 1125; *R.* v. *Haynes* (1815), 4 M. & S. 214.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Treeve* (1796), 2 East, P. C. 821.

CHAPTER VI.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST PUBLIC ORDER, INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL.

We have now to consider (A) offences against public order (internal and external); (B) offences against religion, morals, and public convenience; and (C) offences affecting the administration of justice.

(A.) Offences against Public Order (external and internal). First and foremost of these, is *treason*. [Now treason (*proditio*) imports, in general, a betraying, treachery, or breach of faith (*a*); but the crime of treason, or "high treason," in its technical sense, is treachery against the king. And as it is the highest crime which (considered as a member of the community) any man can possibly commit, it ought therefore to be the most precisely ascertained; for if the crime of treason were indeterminate,

(*a*) ["Treason is a general appellation made use of by the law, to denote not only offences against the king and government, but also that accumulation of guilt which arises whenever a superior reposes a confidence in an inferior, between whom and himself there exists a natural, civil, or even a spiritual relation, and the inferior so abuses that confidence, so forgets the obligations of duty, subjection, and allegiance, as to destroy the life of any such superior or lord. This is looked upon as proceeding from the same principle of treachery in private life as would have urged him who harbours it to conspire in public against his liege lord and sovereign; and, therefore, for a wife to kill her lord or husband, a servant his lord or master, and an ecclesiastic his lord or ordinary; these, being breaches of the lower allegiance of private and domestic faith, are denominated *petit* treasons. But when disloyalty so rears its crest as to attack even majesty itself, it is then usually called *high* treason, and is equivalent to the *crimen laesæ majestatis* of the Romans." 4 Bl. Com. 75.]

[this alone would make any government arbitrary (*b*). By the antient common law, a great latitude was left in the breast of the judges, to determine what was treason, or not so ; and on account of the multitude of constructive treasons which therefore arose, the Treason Act, 1351 (the Statute of Treasons), was passed, for the purpose of defining what offences should for the future be held to be treason. By that statute, the crime of high treason was declared to consist of five distinct species (*c*), to wit, the following :

1. "When a man doth compass or imagine the death "of our lord the king, of our lady his queen, or of their "eldest son and heir." Under this description, a queen *regnant* is within the words of the Act, for she is invested with royal power, and is as much entitled to the allegiance of her subjects as if she had been a king (*d*) ; but the husband of such a queen is not comprised within these words, and therefore no treason can be committed against him (*e*). The king here intended is the king in possession, without any respect to his title ; a king *de facto*, and not *de jure*, or, in other words, an usurper that hath got possession of the throne, being a king within the meaning of the statute. And therefore treasons committed against Henry the Sixth were punished under Edward the Fourth, though all the line of Lancaster had been previously declared usurpers by Act of Parliament. On the other hand, the most rightful heir of the Crown, (or king *de jure*, and not *de facto*,) who hath never had plenary possession of the throne,—as was the case of the house of York, during the three reigns of the line of Lancaster,—is not a king against whom treasons, within this statute, may be

(*b*) Montesquieu, *Spirit of Laws*, b. xii. c. 7.

(*c*) There were originally two other species of treason under this statute, viz., 1, "counter-"feiting the king's great or privy "seal" ; and 2, "counterfeiting "the king's money." But the first of these was, by the Forgery Act, 1861, reduced to an ordinary felony ; and the second now ranks merely as the offence of coining.

(*d*) 1 Hale, P. C. 101 ; *R.* v. *Oxford* (1840), 9 Car. & P. 525.

(*e*) 3 Inst. 7 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 106.

[committed (*f*) ; but the 11 Hen. VII. (1495) c. 1, which was declaratory of the common law, pronounced all subjects excused from any penalty or forfeiture, who assisted and obeyed a king *de facto* (*g*), the true meaning of the statute being, that it does by no means *command* any opposition to a king *de jure*, but *excuses* the obedience paid to a king *de facto*. Also, a king who has resigned his crown is, according to Sir M. Hale, no longer the object of treason (*h*) ; and the same reason holds in case the king abdicates the government, or by actions subversive of the constitution, virtually renounces the authority which he claims by the constitution. Since, when the fact of abdication is once established and determined by the proper judges, the consequence necessarily follows that the throne is thereby vacant, and he is no longer king.

As regards *compassing* or *imagining* the death, &c., the word *compass* signifies the purpose or design, and not the carrying such design into effect (*i*) ; and, therefore, an accidental stroke, which may mortally wound the sovereign, *per infortunium* and without any traitorous intent, is no treason (*k*). Also, as this compassing or imagining is an act of the mind, it cannot possibly fall under any judicial cognizance, unless it be demonstrated by some *overt*, or open, act (*l*) ; and, indeed, the statute expressly requires, that the accused "be thereof, upon "sufficient proof, attainted of *some open act* by men of his "own condition." Thus, to provide weapons or ammunition for the purpose of killing the king, would be an overt act (*m*). Also, to conspire to imprison the king, and to move towards it by assembling company, is an overt act of compassing the king's death (*n*) ; and the taking of any

(*f*) 3 Inst. 7 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 104.

(*g*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 17, s. 16.

(*h*) 1 Hale, P. C. 104.

(*i*) *Ibid.* 107.

(*k*) 3 Inst. 6.

(*l*) By the Treason Act, 1695, s. 8, no evidence can be admitted except as to overt acts expressly laid in the indictment.

(*m*) 3 Inst. 12.

(*n*) 1 Hale, P. C. 109.

[measures to render a treasonable purpose effectual, as assembling and consulting on the means to kill the king, is, undoubtedly, a sufficient overt act of treason (*o*).

How far mere *words* spoken by an individual, and not relative to any treasonable act or design then in agitation, shall amount to treason, was formerly matter of doubt. We have indeed two instances, in the reign of Edward the Fourth, of persons executed for treasonable words,—the one a citizen of London, who said he would make his son heir of the *Crown*, such being the sign of the house (a public inn) in which he lived; the other a gentleman, whose favourite buck the king killed in hunting, whereupon he wished it, horns and all, in the king's belly (*p*). But these were even then esteemed hard cases; and Chief Justice Markham chose rather to leave his place, than to assent to the latter judgment (*q*). And now it seems clearly to be agreed, that, by the common law and the statute of Edward the Third, words spoken (however atrocious in their nature) amount only to a high misdemeanor; for they may be spoken in heat, without any intention, or may be mistaken, perverted, or misremembered by the hearers, their meaning depending always on their connexion with other words and things, and signifying differently according to the tone of voice with which they are delivered. As, therefore, there can be nothing more equivocal and ambiguous than words, it would indeed be unreasonable to make them amount to treason; and accordingly, in the fourth year of Charles the First, on a reference to all the judges concerning some very atrocious words spoken by one Pine, they certified to the king, "that though the words were as wicked as "might be, yet there was no treason, *for, unless it be by* "*some particular statute, no words will be treason*" (*r*). If the words are set down in writing, it argues a more

(*o*) Fost. 194, 195.
(*p*) 1 Hale, P. C. 115.
(*q*) Hale, *ubi sup.*
(*r*) *Pine's Case* (1628), Cro. Car. 117; *William's Case* (1619), 2 Roll. R. 88; 2 St. Tri. 1086.

[deliberate intention ; and it has been held, that writing is, in itself, an overt act of treason. For *scribere est agere*, the deliberate act of writing the words being the treason ; and such writing, though unpublished, has in some arbitrary reigns convicted its author of treason, particularly in the case of one Peacham, a clergyman, for treasonable passages in a sermon never preached (*s*), and in the case of Algernon Sidney, for some papers found in his closet, which, had they been plainly relative to any formed design of dethroning or murdering the king, might doubtless have been properly read in evidence as overt acts of the particular treason laid in the indictment (*t*). But Peacham was pardoned ; and though Sidney was executed, his attainder was afterwards reversed by Parliament (*u*).

2. The second species of high treason is, "if a man "do violate the king's companion, or the king's eldest "daughter unmarried, or the wife of the king's eldest son "and heir." By the king's companion, is meant his *wife ;* and by violation is understood *carnal knowledge*, as well without force as with it. And this is treason in both parties, if both be consenting, as some of the wives of Henry the Eighth by fatal experience evinced ; the intention of the law being to guard the blood royal from any suspicion of bastardy, whereby the succession to the Crown might be rendered dubious. And therefore, when this reason ceases, the law ceases with it. For to violate a queen dowager is no treason (*x*) ; just as, by the feudal law, it was a felony (and attended with a forfeiture of the fief) if the vassal vitiated the wife or daughter of his lord (*y*), but not so, if he only vitiated his widow (*z*).

(*s*) *The Case of Edmund Peacham* (1615), Cro. Car. 125 ; 2 St. Tri. 870.

(*t*) (1683), 9 St. Tri. 818 ; Fost. 198.

(*u*) 1 Hale, P. C. 118 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 17, s. 32.

(*x*) 3 Inst. 9. (Before the Treason Act, 1351, it was also treason to violate the *nurses* of the king's children.)

(*y*) Feud. l. 1, t. 5.

(*z*) *Ibid.*

3. [The third species of high treason is, "if a man do "levy war against our lord the king in his realm." And this may be done by taking arms, not only to dethrone the king, but under pretence to reform religion or the laws (*a*), or to remove evil councillors or other grievances, whether real or pretended (*b*). For the law does not, neither can it, permit any private man, or set of men, to interfere forcibly in matters of such high importance; neither does the constitution justify any private or particular resistance, for private or particular grievances, though, in cases of national oppression, the nation has very justifiably risen as one man, to vindicate the original contract subsisting between the king and his people. To resist the king's forces by defending a castle against them, is a levying of war, and so is an insurrection, with an avowed design to pull down *all* inclosures, *all* brothels, and the like; the universality of the design making it a rebellion against the state, an usurpation of the powers of government, and an insolent invasion of the king's authority (*c*). But a tumult with a view to pull down a particular house, or to lay open a particular inclosure, amounts at the most to a riot, this being no general defiance of the government. And if two subjects quarrel and levy war against each other, in that spirit of private war which prevailed all over Europe in the early feudal times, it is only a great riot and contempt, and no treason (*d*). Thus it happened between the Earls of Hereford and Gloucester, in the twentieth year of Edward the First, who raised each a little army, and committed outrages upon each other's lands, burning houses, attended with the loss of many lives; yet this was held to be no treason, but only a great misdemeanor (*e*).

4. "If a man be adherent to the king's enemies in his

(*a*) Doug. 590.

(*b*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 17, s. 25.

(*c*) 1 Hale, P. C. 132.

(*d*) Robertson, *Chas. V.*, vol. i. 45, 286.

(*e*) 1 Hale, P. C. 136; 3 Inst. 9; Fost. 211, 213.

[" realm, giving to them aid and comfort in the realm or " elsewhere," he is also declared guilty of high treason. This must, likewise, be proved by some overt act, as by conveying intelligence (*f*), sending provisions, selling arms, treacherously surrendering a fortress, or the like (*g*). By enemies, are here understood the subjects of foreign powers with whom we are at open war. As to foreign pirates or robbers who may happen to invade our coasts, without any open hostilities between their nation and our own, and without any commission from any prince or state at enmity with the Crown of Great Britain, the giving them assistance is also clearly treason; either in the light of adhering to the public enemies of the king and kingdom, or else in that of levying war against his Majesty (*h*). And, most indisputably, the same acts of adherence or aid, which, when applied to foreign enemies, will constitute treason under this branch of the statute, will, when afforded to our own fellow-subjects in actual rebellion at home, amount to the same crime, under the description of levying war against the king (*i*). But to relieve a rebel, fled out of the kingdom, is no treason; for the statute is taken strictly, and a rebel is not an *enemy*,— an enemy being always the subject of some foreign prince, and one who owes no allegiance to the Crown of England (*k*). And if a person be under circumstances of actual force and constraint, through a well-grounded apprehension of injury to his life or person, this fear or compulsion will excuse his even joining with either rebels or enemies *in* the kingdom, provided he leaves them whenever he hath a safe opportunity.

5. The last species of high treason under the statute is, " if a man slay the chancellor, treasurer, or the king's

(*f*) *Dr. Hensey's Case* (1758), 1 Burr. 642; 19 St. Tri. 1341; *R. v. Stone* (1796), 6 T. R. 527; 25 St. Tri. 1155.

(*g*) 3 Inst. 10

(*h*) Fost. 219.

(*i*) *Ibid.* 216.

(*k*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 17, s. 28.

[" justices of the one bench or the other, justices in eyre or " justices in assize, and all other justices assigned to hear " and determine, being in their places, doing their offices." But the statute extends only to the actual killing of them, and not to wounding or a bare attempt to kill them ; and it extends only to the officers therein specified. And therefore the barons of the Exchequer, as such, were not within the protection of this Act ; but the lord keeper, or commissioners, of the Great Seal, were brought within it by the 5 Eliz. (1562), c. 18, and 1 Will. & Mary (1688), c. 21 (*l*).

Thus careful was the legislature, in the reign of Edward the Third, to specify and reduce to a certainty the vague notions of treason that had formerly prevailed in our courts ; and the Act (after making specific mention of the treasons aforesaid) proceeds as follows :—" Because other " like case of treason may happen in time to come, which " cannot be thought of or declared at present, it is accorded " that if any other case supposed to be treason, which is " not above specified, doth happen before any judge, the " judge shall tarry without going to judgment of the " treason, till the cause be shown and declared before the " king and his parliament, whether it ought to be judged " treason or other felony." Sir M. Hale is very high in his encomiums on the great wisdom and care of the parliament, in thus keeping judges within the proper bounds and limits of this Act, by not suffering them to run out upon their own opinions into constructive treasons, but reserving all such for the decision of parliament (*m*). This is a great security to the public, and leaves a weighty *memento* to judges to be careful, and not overhasty in letting in treasons by construction or interpretation, especially in new cases that have not been resolved and settled. Sir M. Hale also observes, that as the authoritative decision of these *casus omissi* is reserved to the

(*l*) 1 Hale, P. C. 231. (*m*) *Ibid.* 259.

[king and parliament, the most regular way to do it is by a new declarative Act; and therefore a mere resolution of either or of both houses of parliament, could not amount to that solemn declaration referred to by the Act, as the only criterion for judging of future treasons (*n*).

In consequence of the power reserved by the Act, the legislature in the unfortunate reign of King Richard the Second was extremely liberal in declaring new treasons; *e.g.*, killing an ambassador was declared treason. Even this was founded upon better reason than the multitude of other points that were then strained up to this high offence; the most arbitrary and absurd of all which was by the 21 Rich. II. (1397), c. 3, which made the bare purpose and intent of killing or deposing the king, without any overt act to demonstrate it, treason. And yet so little effect have over-violent laws to prevent any crime, that within two years afterwards this very prince was both deposed and murdered. And in the first year of his successor's reign, an Act was passed, reciting "that no "man knew how he ought to behave himself, to do, speak, "or say, for doubt of such pains of treason; and therefore "it was accorded, that in no time to come any treason be "judged, otherwise than was ordained by the statute of "King Edward the Third" (*o*). This at once swept away the whole load of extravagant treasons, introduced in the time of Richard the Second.

But afterwards, between the reigns of Henry the Fourth and Queen Mary, and particularly in the reign of Henry the Eighth, the spirit was revived of inventing new and strange treasons. Among which, we may reckon the following offences, viz., clipping money; breaking prison or rescue, when the prisoner was committed for treason; burning houses to extort money; stealing of cattle by Welshmen; counterfeiting foreign coin; wilful poisoning; execrations against the king, or calling him opprobrious

(*n*) 1 Hale, P. C. 259. (*o*) Stat. 1 Hen. 4 (1399), c. 10.

[names by public writing; refusing to abjure the Pope; deflowering, or marrying without the royal licence, any of the king's children, sisters, aunts, nephews, or nieces; bare solicitation of the chastity of the queen or princess, or advances made by themselves; marrying with the king, by a woman not a virgin, without previously discovering to him her unchastity; judging or *believing* (manifested by an overt act) the king to have been lawfully married to Anne of Cleves; derogating from the king's royal style and title; impugning his supremacy; and assembling riotously to the number of twelve, and not dispersing upon proclamation. All which new-fangled treasons were totally abrogated by the 1 Edw. VI. (1547), c. 12 (confirmed by the 1 Mary (1554), sess. 1), which once more reduced all treasons to the standard of the statute of the twenty-fifth year of Edward the Third (*p*).

But since the reign of Mary, addition has again been made to the number of treasonable offences created by Act of Parliament. For, by the 1 Anne, st. 2 (1702), c. 21, s. 3, if any one shall endeavour to deprive or hinder any person, being the next in succession to the Crown according to the limitations of the Act of Settlement, from succeeding to the Crown, and shall maliciously and directly attempt the same by any overt act, such offence shall be high treason. Also, by the Succession to the Crown Act, 1707, if any person shall maliciously, advisedly, and directly, by writing or printing, maintain and affirm that any other person hath any right or title to the Crown of this realm, otherwise than according to the Act of Settlement, or that the kings of this realm, with the authority of parliament, are not able to make laws and statutes to bind the Crown and the descent thereof,—such person shall be guilty of high treason. This offence, or indeed maintaining this doctrine in anywise, that the king and parliament cannot limit the Crown, was once before

(*p*) Treason Act, 1351.

[made treason, by the 13 Eliz. (1571), c. 1, during the life of that princess. But, after her decease, it was a high misdemeanor only, and was punishable with forfeiture of goods and chattels; until it was again raised into treason, by the statute of Anne above mentioned, at the time of a projected invasion in favour of the then Pretender. And upon this statute one Matthews, a printer, was convicted and executed, in 1719, for printing a treasonable pamphlet, entitled *Vox populi Vox Dei* (*q*).] Lastly, by the Treason Act, 1796 (*r*), if any person shall, either within the realm or without, compass, imagine, invent, devise, or intend death, destruction, or any bodily harm tending to death or destruction, maim or wounding, imprisonment, or restraint of the person of the king, his heirs and successors, and shall express, utter, or declare such intention by publishing any printing or writing, or by any overt act, he shall be adjudged a traitor.

The crime of high treason is subject to limitation in respect of time; for, by the Treason Act, 1695, s. 5, no person may be prosecuted for high treason, but within *three* years next after the commission of the offence, except only in the case of a designed assassination of the king, by poison or otherwise (*s*). The punishment of high treason was formerly very terrible, the sentence at one time including the barbarity of disembowelling the traitor while he was yet alive, and burning his bowels before his face. And, even by the Treason Act, 1814, the sentence to be pronounced was—(1) that the offender be drawn on a hurdle to the place of execution; (2) that he be hanged by the neck until dead; (3) that his head be severed from his body; (4) that his body be divided into four quarters; and (5) that his head and quarters be at the disposal of the Crown. But the king, after sentence, by warrant under his sign-manual, countersigned by a principal secretary of

(*q*) 15 St. Tri. 1323.

(*r*) Made perpetual by the Treason Act, 1817, and extended to Ireland by the Treason Felony Act, 1848.

(*s*) Sect. 6.

state, might have changed the whole sentence into beheading, and even have remitted the capital punishment altogether; and the sentence upon women was, that they should be drawn to the place of execution, and hanged by the neck until dead (*t*). And now, by the Forfeiture Act, 1870, s. 31, the sentence in all cases, is, that the traitor shall be hanged by the neck until dead, unless the king, by warrant under the sign-manual, countersigned as above, substitutes death by decapitation.

II. *Misprision of treason.*—Misprisions [are, in the acceptation of our law, generally understood to be all such high offences as are under the degree of capital, but nearly bordering thereon. And it is said that a misprision is contained in every treason and felony whatsoever; so that, if the king so please, the offender may be proceeded against for the misprision only (*u*). Upon the same principle, while the jurisdiction of the Star Chamber subsisted, it was held that the king might remit a prosecution for treason, and cause the delinquent to be censured in that court merely for a high misdemeanor; as happened in the forty-third year of Elizabeth, in the case of Roger, Earl of Rutland, who was concerned in the Earl of Essex's rebellion (*x*). Misprisions are generally divided in our books into two sorts,—(1) negative, which consist in the concealment of something which ought to be revealed; and (2) positive, which consist in the commission of something which ought not to be done. But the latter are not in common language called misprisions, but rather *contempts* or *high misdemeanors*. Misprision of treason consists of the bare knowledge and concealment of treason, without any degree of assent thereto. At the

(*t*) Treason Act, 1814; ss. 1, 2; Treason Act, 1790, s. 1.

(*u*) Year Book, 2 Rich. 3, 10; Staundf. P. C. 37; Kel. 71; 1 Hale, P. C. 374; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 20.

(*x*) Hudson, *Of the Court of Star Chamber*, MS. in Mus. Brit.; *Collectanea Juridica*, vol. ii. pp. 1—241.

[common law, this in itself amounted to treason; but it was enacted, by the 1 & 2 Ph. & M. (1554), c. 10, that a bare concealment of treason should be held a misprision only (*y*). And such concealment becomes criminal, if the party apprised of the treason does not, as soon as conveniently may be, reveal it to some judge of assize or justice of the peace (*z*). But if there be any probable circumstances of assent, as if one goes to a treasonable meeting, knowing beforehand that a conspiracy is intended against the king, or, being in such company once by accident, and having heard such treasonable conspiracy, meets the same company again, and hears more of it, but conceals it, that is an implied assent in law, and makes the concealer guilty of actual treason (*a*).

The punishment of misprision of treason is the loss of the profits of the lands of the offender during life, forfeiture of his goods, and imprisonment during life; which total forfeiture of the goods was originally inflicted while the offence amounted to principal treason, and, of course, included in it a felony by the common law (*b*).] But there is no modern precedent of an indictment for misprision of treason. It is curious to observe that the Forfeiture Act, 1870, takes no notice of misprisions, and consequently the excessive severity of the punishment for misprision of treason remains unaltered, though the offence itself is practically obsolete (*c*).

III. A third offence, closely connected with that of high treason, is one provided against by the Treason Act, 1842; namely, that of a person who wilfully discharges, points, aims, or presents at the person of the king any gun or other arms, whether containing explosive materials or not; or who strikes at, or attempts to throw any thing

(*y*) Sect. 8.

(*z*) 1 Hale, P. C. 372.

(*a*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 20, s. 3.

(*b*) 1 Hale, P. C. 374.

(*c*) Imprisonment for life appears to be the minimum term. (Stephen, *Dig. Cr. Law*, Art. 174, and Note IV.)

upon, the royal person ; or who produces any fire-arms or other arms, or any explosive or dangerous matter, near the royal person,—with intent, in any of these cases, either to injure or alarm, or merely to commit a breach of the peace. Any one so offending is guilty of a high misdemeanor, and is made liable to penal servitude for seven or not less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment for not more than three years, and (if the court shall so direct), to be whipped not more than thrice during that period.

IV. A fourth offence, of the same species as the last—sometimes described (though rather inaccurately) as *treason felony*—has also been made the subject of modern legislation, in order, with regard to certain treasonable practices, to substitute a milder penalty than death, and so to facilitate the conviction of the criminal, but not so as in any manner to affect or repeal the Treason Act, 1351. For, by the Treason Felony Act, 1848, if any person shall (either within the United Kingdom or without) compass, imagine, invent, devise, or intend to deprive or depose the king, from the style, honour, or royal name of the imperial crown of the United Kingdom, or of any of his Majesty's dominions and countries, or to levy war against him, within any part of the United Kingdom, in order by force or constraint to compel a change of measures or counsels, or in order to put any force or constraint upon (or to intimidate or overawe) both houses or either house of parliament, or to move or stir any foreigner or stranger with force to invade the United Kingdom, or any other of his Majesty's dominions or countries under the obeisance of the Crown, and shall express, utter, or declare such compassings, imaginations, inventions, devices, or intentions, or any of them, by publishing any printing or writing, or by any overt act or deed—the person so offending shall be guilty of felony (*d*). On conviction he

(*d*) *Mulcahy* v. *The Queen* (1868), L. R. 3 H. L. 306 ; *R.* v. *John Mitchel* (1848), 6 St. Tri. (N.S.) 599.

is liable, at the discretion of the court, to be sentenced to penal servitude for life, or for any term not less than three years, or to be imprisoned for any term not exceeding two years, with or without hard labour, as the court shall direct (*e*). And there is a proviso, that if the facts alleged in the indictment, or proved on the trial, of any person charged with felony under the Act, shall amount in law to treason, such indictment shall nevertheless not be deemed void, erroneous, or defective; nor shall such person be entitled to be acquitted of the felony. But no person tried for the felony may afterwards be prosecuted for treason upon the same facts.

V. [A fifth offence against the king may be by speaking or writing against him, cursing or wishing him ill, giving out scandalous stories concerning him (*f*), or doing any thing that may tend to lessen him in the esteem of his subjects, or which may weaken his government, or raise jealousies between him and his people. It has been also held an offence of this species, to drink to the pious memory of a traitor: or for a clergyman to absolve persons at the gallows, who there persist in the treasons for which they die,—these being acts which impliedly encourage rebellion. And for this species of contempt, it is laid down, that a man may not only be fined and imprisoned, but may also suffer corporal punishment (*g*).

VI. A sixth offence against public order is the offence of *Præmunire*, so called from the words of the writ preparatory to the prosecution of the offence, namely:—*præmunire facias* A. B. (*h*), "cause A. B. to be fore-"warned," that he appear before us to answer the

(*e*) Treason Felony Act, 1848, s. 3; Penal Servitude Acts, 1857 and 1891.

(*f*) *R.* v. *Harvey* (1823), 2 B. & C. 257.

(*g*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 23, s. 3.

(*h*) *Præmunio*, in Law-Latin, is used for *præmoneo*, or *cito*. (Ducange, *Gloss.*)

[contempt wherewith he stands charged (*i*). The true origin and character of the offence is to be found in the old pretensions of the Papacy in England,] which reached their highest point in the formal surrender of the kingdom by King John, and were exercised with merciless severity during the reign of his weak son and successor, Henry the Third. [But King Edward the First was a monarch of a different calibre; and in the thirty-fifth year of his reign he procured the first statute against papal pretensions to be passed. This was (according to Sir Edward Coke) the foundation of all the subsequent statutes of *præmunire*, which was ranked as an offence immediately against the king, because every encouragement of the papal power was a diminution of the authority of the Crown (*k*). Edward the Third maintained the struggle so begun; and in the fortieth year of his reign, King John's donation was declared null and void, as having been without the concurrence of parliament, and contrary to the coronation oath (*l*).] Many similar statutes were passed in the reign of his grandson, Richard the Second, probably because the weakness of that monarch compelled his parliaments to protect him against the demands of the Papal See.

[In the writ for the execution of all these statutes, the words *præmunire facias*, being (as we have said) used to demand a citation of the party, have denominated in common speech not only the writ, but the offence itself of maintaining the papal power, by the name of *præmunire;* and accordingly the 16 Ric. II. (1392) c. 5, is usually called the Statute of *Præmunire*. This statute enacted that all who procured at Rome, or elsewhere, any translations, processes, excommunications, bulls, instruments, or other things which touched the king, against him his crown and realm (and all persons aiding and assisting therein) should be put out of the king's protection, their

(*i*) *Old. Nat. Brev.* 101, edit. 1534.

(*k*) 2 Inst. 583.

(*l*) Seld. *in Flet.* 10, 4.

[lands and goods forfeited to the king's use, and themselves attached by their bodies to answer to the king and his council: or that process of *præmunire facias* should be made out against them, as in other cases of provisors. Also, by the 2 Hen. IV. (1400) c. 3, all persons accepting any provision from the Pope, to be exempt from canonical obedience to their proper ordinary, were subjected to the penalties of *præmunire*.

This, then, is the original meaning of the offence which we call *præmunire*, viz., introducing a foreign power into this land, and creating *imperium in imperio*, by paying that obedience to papal process which constitutionally belonged to the king alone. And upon the Reformation, in the reign of Henry the Eighth, it was further enacted as follows, that is to say:—By the 24 Hen. VIII. (1532) c. 12 and 25 Hen. VIII. (1533) cc. 19 and 21, appeals to Rome from any of the king's courts, suing to Rome for any licence or dispensation, and obeying any process from thence,—were all declared offences and liable to the pains of *præmunire*; and in order to restore to the king the nomination to vacant bishopries and benefices, it was enacted, by the 25 Hen. VIII. (1533) c. 20, that if the dean and chapter refused to elect the person named by the king, or any archbishop or bishop to confirm or consecrate him, they should fall within the penalties of the statutes of *præmunire*. And by the 13 Eliz. (1571) c. 2, to import any *agnus Dei*, crosses, beads, or other superstitious things pretended to be hallowed by the bishop of Rome, tendering the same to be used, or to receive the same with such intent, and not to discover the offender, were made offences, and subjected the offenders to the penalties of a *præmunire*.

Thus far the penalties of *præmunire* seem to have kept within the proper bounds of their original institution, namely, the depressing the power of the Pope; but it was afterwards thought fit to apply them to other heinous offences, some of which had but a slight relation, and

[others no relation at all, to the original offence. Thus, (1.) By the 1 & 2 Ph. & M. (1554) c. 8, to molest the possessors of abbey lands granted by parliament to Henry VIII. and Edward VI., was made a *præmunire*. (2.) By the 21 Jac. I. (1623) c. 3, to obtain any stay of proceedings (other than by arrest of judgment or a writ of error) in any suit for a monopoly, was made a *præmunire*. (3.) By the 16 Car. I. (1640) c. 21, to attempt to restrain the importation or making of gunpowder, was made a *præmunire*. (4.) On the abolition, by the 12 Car. II. (1660) c. 24, of the prerogative of *purveyance and pre-emption*, the exertion of any such power for the future was declared to be indictable ; and in any suit thereon, to obtain any stay of proceedings, other than by arrest of judgment or a writ of error, was made a *præmunire*. (5.) To assert maliciously and advisedly, by speaking or writing, that both or either house of parliament have a legislative authority without the king, was declared a *præmunire*, by the 13 Car. II. (1661) st. 1, c. 1. (6.) Also, by the Habeas Corpus Act, 1679, to send any subject of this realm (with certain exceptions in the Act specified) a prisoner into parts beyond the seas was made a *præmunire*, and one which the king could not pardon ; besides being visited with other heavy penalties. (7.) By the 7 & 8 Will. III. (1695) c. 24, serjeants, counsellors, proctors, attornies, and all officers of courts practising without having taken the proper oaths, were made guilty of a *præmunire*. (8.) By the Succession to the Crown Act, 1707, to assert maliciously and directly, by preaching, teaching, or advised speaking, that any person, other than according to the Acts of Settlement and Union, hath any right to the throne of these kingdoms, or that the king and parliament cannot make laws to limit the descent of the Crown, was declared a *præmunire ;* and writing, printing, or publishing the same doctrines were made to amount to treason. (9.) By the Scottish Representative Peers Act, 1707, if the assembly of peers of Scotland,

[convened to elect their representatives in the British Parliament, should presume to treat of any other matter save only the election, they incurred the penalties of a *præmunire*.] And (10.) The Royal Marriages Act, 1772, subjected to the penalties of the statute of *præmunire*, all such as should knowingly and wilfully solemnize, assist, or be present at, any forbidden marriage of such of the descendants of the body of King George the Second, as were by that Act prohibited to contract matrimony without the consent of the Crown.

[Having thus inquired into the nature and several species of *præmunire*, its punishment may be gathered from the foregoing statutes, which are thus shortly summed up by Sir Edward Coke:—"That from the "conviction, the defendant shall be out of the king's "protection, and his lands and tenements, goods and "chattels, forfeited to the king; and that his body shall "remain in prison *at the king's pleasure*, or (as other "authorities have it) *during life*"; both which amount to the same thing, as the king by his prerogative may any time remit the whole or any part of the punishment, except in the case of transgressing the statute of *habeas corpus* (*m*).

These forfeitures do not bring this offence within the category of felony, being inflicted by particular statutes, and not by the common law. But so odious (Sir Edward Coke adds) was this offence of *præmunire*, that a man that was attainted of the same might have been slain by any other man without danger of law; because it is provided by law that any man might do to him as to the king's enemy, and any man may lawfully kill an enemy (*n*). However, to obviate such savage or mistaken notions, the 5 Eliz. (1562), c. 1, s. 21, provided that it should not be lawful to kill any person attainted in a *præmunire*, any law, statute, opinion, or exposition of law, to the contrary

(*m*) 3 Inst. 129. (*n*) *Ibid.*

[notwithstanding. But still such delinquent, though protected, as a part of the public, from public wrongs, can bring no action for any private injury, how atrocious soever; being so far out of the protection of the law, that the law will not guard his civil rights, nor remedy any grievance which he as an individual may suffer. And no man, knowing him to be guilty, can with safety give him comfort, aid, or relief (*o*).] The forfeiture to the Crown on a conviction for *præmunire* of all the criminal's property is (like the forfeiture for misprision of treason) not abolished by the Forfeiture Act, 1870; since, (as has been already said,) *præmunire* is not a felony.

VII. [*Contempts against the Sovereign's Title*, which fall short of treason or *præmunire*, are chiefly the denial of his right to the Crown, in common and unadvised discourse; for if it be by advised speaking, it amounts to *præmunire*. And this heedless species of contempt is punishable with fine and imprisonment.]

VIII. *Contempt of the Crown's Ecclesiastical Supremacy.* —This was considered to be committed by endeavouring to establish a hierarchy of the see of Rome within this realm, with titles invasive of the rights of our Protestant dignitaries; and by the Ecclesiastical Titles Act, 1851, a penalty of 100*l.* was imposed upon any person who should procure from the see of Rome, or publish or put in use within the United Kingdom, any bull for constituting archbishops or bishops of pretended provinces or sees, and upon any person (other than a person authorized by law) who should assume or use the title of archbishop, bishop, or dean of any city, town, place, or territory in the United Kingdom. No prosecution, however, under these enactments was ever in fact instituted, although prelates appointed by the Pope continued to assume, both in England and in Ireland,

(*o*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 19, s. 47.

territorial titles; and the Acts themselves were repealed by the Ecclesiastical Titles Act, 1871, the preamble of which declares it to be inexpedient to impose penalties upon those ministers of religion "who may, *as among the* "*members of the several religious bodies to which they* "*respectively belong*, be designated by distinctions regarded "as titles of office, although such designation may be "connected with the name of some town or place within "the realm." But the repeal is not to be deemed in any way to authorize or sanction the conferring of any rank, title, precedence, authority, or jurisdiction over a subject of this realm, by any person other than by our own king.

IX. [*Contempts against the Royal Palaces* have been always looked upon as high misprisions; and, by the antient law before the Conquest, fighting in the king's palace or before the king's judges was punished with death (*p*). So, too, in the old Gothic constitution, there were many places privileged by law—"*quibus major* "*reverentia et securitas debetur, ut templa et judicia, quæ* "*sancta habebantur, arces et aula regis, denique locus* "*quilibet præsente aut adventante rege*" (*q*).] With us, by the 33 Hen. VIII. (1541), c. 12, malicious striking in the king's palace wherein his royal person resides, whereby blood is drawn, was punishable by perpetual imprisonment and fine at the king's pleasure, and also by the loss of the offender's right hand, the solemn execution of which sentence is prescribed in the statute at length (*r*); but by the 9 Geo. IV. (1828), c. 31, s. 1, the part of this Act which authorised the above mutilation, was repealed. It appears, however, to be a contempt of the kind now in question to execute the ordinary process of the law, by arrest or otherwise, within the verge of a royal palace, or

(*p*) 2 Inst. 140; *LL. Alured.* caps. 7 & 34.

(*q*) Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 3, c. 3.

(*r*) *Sir Edmond Knevet's Case* (1541), 1 St. Tri. 443.

in the Tower, unless permission be first obtained from the proper authority (*s*).

X. [*The Maladministration of such High Officers as are in Public Trust and Employment*, may be ranked as a contempt against the king or his government. This was in times past usually punished by the method of parliamentary impeachment, wherein such penalties short of death were inflicted, as to the wisdom of the House of Lords seemed proper. The penalties consisted usually of banishment, imprisonment, fines, or perpetual disability. To this head also may be referred the offence of *embezzling public money*, called among the Romans *peculatus*, and which the *Lex Julia* punished with death in a magistrate, and with deportation or banishment in a private person (*t*). With us, it is not a capital crime; but, at the common law, it subjects the offender to a discretionary fine and imprisonment;] and, by the Embezzlement by Collectors Act, 1810, s. 2, if any officer entrusted with the receipt or management of the public revenues, knowingly furnishes false statements or returns of the moneys collected by him (or of the balances left in his hands), he is guilty of a misdemeanor, and may be fined and imprisoned at the discretion of the court, and for ever rendered incapable of holding any office under the Crown. And special provisions have been made with regard to the *stealing* or *embezzlement*, by a person in the service of the Crown, of any chattel, money, or valuable security in his possession, or coming under his control by virtue of such employment (*u*).

XI. To the same class of offences, must be referred that of *Selling Public Offices*. As to which it was provided,

(*s*) *Elderton's Case* (1703), 2 Ld. Raym. 978; *R.* v. *Stobbs* (1790), 3 T. R. 735; *Winter* v. *Miles* (1808), 1 Camp. 475; *Bell* v. *Jacobs* (1828), 1 Moo. & P. 309; *Att.-Gen.* v. *Dakin* (1867), L. R. 2 Ex. 290.

(*t*) Inst. 4. 18, 9.

(*u*) Larceny Act, 1861, ss. 69, 70; *cf.* p. 114.

by the Sale of Offices Act, 1809 (reciting and extending the Sale of Offices Act, 1551, on the same subject), that persons buying or selling, or receiving or paying money or reward for, any office in the gift of the Crown ; and persons receiving or paying money for, or soliciting or obtaining, any such office, or making any negotiation or pretended negotiation relating thereto ; and persons opening or advertising houses for transacting business relating to the sale of any such office,—should respectively be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor (*x*). Similarly, by the Chief Justice's Pension Act, 1825, and the Judges' Pensions Act, 1825, the sale of offices in the King's Bench and Common Pleas was expressly prohibited.

XII. *Offences in relation to the Customs, the Royal Naval or Military Stores, Ships, &c.*—As to the *customs*, we must here refer to the offence of *smuggling*, that is, importing or exporting prohibited goods, or without paying the duties on goods not prohibited ; which practice is a fraud on the revenue, and is accordingly restrained by the statutes relating to the Customs of which we spoke in a former volume (*y*). By one of these, the Customs Consolidation Act, 1876, it is enacted, that a person who shall maliciously shoot at any vessel or boat belonging to the navy or in the service of the revenue, or shall maliciously shoot at, maim, or wound any officer of the army, navy, marines, or coastguard on full pay, or any officer of Customs or excise, or those aiding them, while duly employed for the prevention of smuggling and in the execution of his or their duty, shall be guilty of felony, and shall be liable to penal servitude for not less than five (now three) years, or to be imprisoned for not exceeding three (now two) years (*z*). Moreover, every person procuring or hiring any person or persons to assemble for the

(*x*) *Hopkins* v. *Prescott* (1847), 4 C. B. 578 ; *Eyre* v. *Forbes* (1862), 12 C. B. (N.S.) 191.

(*y*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 549—551.

(*z*) Sect. 198.

purpose of being concerned in running prohibited goods, or goods the duties for which have not been paid, may be imprisoned for any term not exceeding twelve months; and if such person or persons, being armed with fire-arms or other offensive weapons, or disguised in any way, whether armed or not, shall be found with goods liable to forfeiture under the Customs Acts, within five miles of the sea coast or any tidal river, he or they may be imprisoned with or without hard labour for any term not exceeding three years (*a*). So, also, any person found signalling at night to or from smuggling vessels is guilty of a misdemeanor, and may forfeit the penalty of 100*l*., or at the discretion of the court, be committed to prison for one year (*b*). Moreover, any person taking goods from a warehouse without payment of duty, and any person destroying or embezzling goods duly warehoused, is guilty of a misdemeanor and punishable accordingly (*c*). And finally, a person convicted of any offence under the Customs Acts, who shall have been adjudged to pay a penalty exceeding 100*l*., may be imprisoned, if for a first offence, for not less than six nor more than nine months; and for a subsequent offence, in lieu of the penalty, may be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for not less than six nor more than twelve months (*d*). If during such his imprisonment it shall appear that he had been previously convicted, he may be further convicted for not less than nine nor more than twelve months from the date of his first imprisonment (*e*).

As to the Royal Stores, such offences in relation to them as amount to larceny or embezzlement, are punishable according to the distinctions already explained with regard to those crimes (*f*); and besides these, there are

(*a*) Sect. 189. (Apparently the maximum term prescribed by this section is *not* reduced by the Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1 (2).)

(*b*) Sect. 190.

(*c*) Sect. 85.

(*d*) Customs Consolidation Act, 1876, s. 237.

(*e*) Sect. 240.

(*f*) *Vide sup.* p. 114.

other offences falling under the present head, to repress which various enactments formerly existed, which are now, almost all, consolidated in the Public Stores Act, 1875. Among other provisions, this statute enacts,—(1.) That any unauthorized person, who shall apply in or on any of his Majesty's stores the *broad arrow*, or other royal mark, shall be guilty of a *misdemeanor*, and liable to imprisonment for not more than two years, with or without hard labour (*g*) ; and (2.) That any person, who with intent to conceal his Majesty's property in such stores, shall take out, destroy, or obliterate any such mark, shall be guilty of *felony*, and liable to penal servitude for any term not exceeding seven years nor less than three years, or to imprisonment for not more than two years, with or without hard labour (*h*).

Moreover, by the Dockyards, etc. Protection Act, 1772, to *set on fire, burn, or destroy* any of his Majesty's ships of war, (whether built, building, or repairing,) or any of the arsenals, magazines, dockyards, ropeyards, or victualling offices of the Crown, or materials thereto belonging, or any military, naval, or victualling stores or ammunition, or to aid, procure, abet, or assist in any of such offences, is made a felony punishable with *death*. But, under the Judgment of Death Act, 1823, the judgment of death in such case may be *ordered to be recorded* in place of pronouncing it in open court ; and the effect of this is to save the offender's life.

XIII. The offence of *Serving Foreign States*, which service is generally inconsistent with allegiance to one's natural prince, is now restrained and punishable by the Foreign Enlistment Act, 1870. This statute provides, that if any British subject, without the licence of his Majesty, shall accept any commission in the military or naval service of any foreign state at war with any foreign state at peace with his Majesty (or, as the Act expresses

(*g*) Sect. 4. (*h*) Sect. 5.

it, "with any friendly state"), or shall induce any other person so to do, or shall quit or attempt to quit his Majesty's dominions, with the intention of accepting such commission, or shall prepare or fit out any naval or military expedition to proceed against the dominions of any friendly state,—he shall, in any of the above cases, be punishable by fine, or by imprisonment to the extent of two years, or both (*i*) ; and the imprisonment may be with hard labour (*k*). And if any person within his Majesty's dominions, (without licence from the Crown first obtained,) builds or equips any ship for the service of any foreign state at war with a friendly state, or issues any commission for any such ship, or increases the number of her guns or equipment for war, or is concerned in augmenting her warlike force,—he is guilty of a misdemeanor, and may be punished in the same manner. And any ship violating the provisions of the Act may be *detained*, either by the local authority, or by an order of the secretary of state or of the chief executive authority (*l*). The licence required by the Act may be either under the King's sign manual, or by Order in Council, or by proclamation (*m*).

XIV. The offences of *Desertion* or *Seducing to Desert* from the army or navy are now mainly provided against by the Naval Discipline Act, 1866, and by the Army Act, 1881, as amended by the successive Annual Army Acts. By these statutes, when the offender is subject to their provisions, he may be tried by a court-martial ; and that court may inflict such punishment as is specified in the Acts (*n*). As regards the *reserve* forces, the offence of desertion is regulated by the Reserve Forces Act, 1882, ss. 15—17. As regards the *merchant service*, the desertion of seamen and apprentices therein is regulated by the

(*i*) Sect. 13 ; *R.* v. *Jameson*, [1896] 2 Q. B. 425.
(*k*) Sects. 4—6.
(*l*) Sects. 21—23.
(*m*) Sect. 15.
(*n*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 571—577.

Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (*o*), repealing but re-enacting the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, and the Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880, s. 10.

In addition, however, to the above Acts, the Incitement to Mutiny Act, 1797 (*p*), enacts, that any person maliciously endeavouring to seduce any persons, serving in the royal forces by sea or land, from their allegiance, or stirring up any such persons to mutiny or to any traitorous or mutinous practice, shall be guilty of felony. The Act made the offender punishable with *death;* but by the effect of later statutes, he is now liable, if convicted under its provisions, to penal servitude for life, or any term not less than three years, or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour or solitary confinement, for any term not more than two years (*q*).

XV. Another class of offences ranging itself under the present head, is that of administering *Unlawful Oaths;* or of being engaged in *Illegal Societies.* With regard to these, it is enacted by the Unlawful Oaths Act, 1797, that whoever shall administer or cause to be administered, or shall be present at and consenting to the administering of, or shall himself take, any *oath or engagement* intended to bind any person to any mutinous or seditious purpose, or to bind him to belong to any seditious society or confederacy, or to obey any committee, or any person not having legal authority for that purpose, or not to give evidence against any confederate or other person, or not to discover any "unlawful combination" or illegal act, or illegal oath or engagement,—shall be guilty of felony. The present punishment is penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than three years, or imprisonment with or without hard labour for not more than two years.

(*o*) Sect. 221.

(*p*) Made perpetual by 57 Geo. 3 (1817), c. 7.

(*q*) Punishment of Offences Act, 1837, s. 1; Penal Servitude Acts, 1857 and 1891.

And to have taken such oath or engagement under *compulsion* is no excuse, unless the party within four days after he has an opportunity discloses the whole of the case to a justice of the peace, or (in the case of a soldier or seaman) to his commanding officer. And by the Unlawful Societies Act, 1799, the Unlawful Oaths Act, 1812, and the Seditious Meetings Act, 1817, all societies are to be deemed *unlawful combinations* of which the members take such oaths or engagements as are expressly prohibited by the Unlawful Oaths Act, 1797, or as are not required by law, or of which the members subscribe any unauthorized test or declaration, or which comprise members whose names are unknown to the society at large, or consist of different branches, which act in any manner separately or distinct from each other (*r*). Persons becoming members of such unlawful combinations, or aiding, abetting, or supporting the same, may be either proceeded against by way of summary conviction before justices, or prosecuted by indictment; in which latter case they may be sentenced to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than five (now three) years, or imprisoned for any time not exceeding two years (*s*). On the other hand, regular lodges of Freemasons, societies duly established under the statutes in force relating to Friendly Societies, meetings of Quakers, and meetings of a religious or charitable nature only, do not come within the prohibiting clauses of the Acts; and such of their provisions as relate to *oaths and engagements* do not extend to any form of declaration approved by two justices, and registered as in the Acts provided.

By one of the above Acts, viz., by the Unlawful Oaths Act, 1812, it is also provided, that every person who shall administer, or cause to be administered, or be aiding or assisting in the administration of, any oath or engagement

(*r*) 1 Russell, *Crimes*, 6th ed., 574.

(*s*) *R.* v. *Dixon* (1834), 6 Car. & P. 601.

intended to bind the party sworn to the commission of any *treason*, *murder*, or *capital felony*, shall be guilty of felony, and may be sentenced to penal servitude for life, or for not less than five (now three) years, or be imprisoned, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, for any term not more than two years (*u*). And every person taking such oath or engagement, not being compelled, is also guilty of felony, and liable to penal servitude for life, or such time as the court may direct. Compulsion is no excuse, unless the party makes discovery of the case within fourteen days (*v*).

XVI. There are also certain *Miscellaneous Contempts* against the royal prerogative, not properly falling under any of the preceding heads. [For example:—(1.) Concealing treasure trove, which, as we have elsewhere explained, belongs to the king (or his grantees) by royal prerogative (*x*). Such concealment was formerly punishable with death (*y*), but now only with fine and imprisonment (*z*). (2.) Preferring the interests of a foreign potentate to those of our own, or doing or receiving any thing that may create an undue influence in favour of such external power, as by taking a pension from any foreign prince without the consent of the Crown (*a*). The offence of betraying official secrets, by disclosing matters which, in the interests of the state, ought not to be divulged to foreign powers, has now been provided for by statute, and may be ranked with this miscellaneous group of contempts (*b*). (3.) Disobeying the king's lawful commands, whether expressed by writs issuing out of his courts of justice; or by summons to attend his privy council; or by letter from him to a subject, commanding him to return from beyond the seas (for disobedience to which,

(*u*) Sect. 1.
(*v*) Sect. 2.
(*x*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 538, 539.
(*y*) Glanv. l. 1, c. 2.
(*z*) 3 Inst. 133.
(*a*) *Ibid.* 144.
(*b*) Official Secrets Act, 1889.

[his lands shall be seized till he does return, and himself afterwards punished). (4.) Disobedience to any Act of Parliament, where no particular penalty is assigned. All these are given in the books as instances of misprision and contempts; the general punishment whereof is fine and imprisonment, at the discretion of the court (*c*).]

XVII. *Riotously demolishing Churches, Houses, Buildings, or Machinery.*—By the Malicious Damage Act, 1861, which re-enacts the similar provisions contained in earlier statutes, if any persons, being riotously and tumultuously assembled together, shall unlawfully and with force demolish, pull down, or destroy (or begin to demolish, pull down, or destroy) any church, chapel, meeting-house, or other place of divine worship, or any house, stable, or other such buildings, engines, or machinery as in the Act mentioned, they shall be guilty of felony, and liable to penal servitude for life, or for any term not less than five (now three) years, or to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not more than two years (*d*). And for any injury or damage done by such rioters, they are liable as for a misdemeanor, and may be punished with either penal servitude for seven years, or with imprisonment for two years (*e*).

By the Riot (Damages) Act, 1886, repealing and re-enacting with amendments (among other statutes) the 7 & 8 Geo. IV. (1826), c. 31, under which the hundred was made liable for damages resulting from such tumultuous riots, it has now been provided, that where a house, or the goods therein, shop, or building in any police district have been injured, stolen, or destroyed by any persons riotously and tumultuously assembled together, compensation shall be paid to the injured party out of the police rate of the district (s. 2). Claims for

(*c*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 22, s. 5.

(*d*) Sect. 11; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1.

(*e*) Malicious Damage Act, 1861, s. 12; *R.* v. *Langford* (1842), Car. & M. 602.

compensation under the Act are made to the police authority of the district in which the injury, stealing, or destruction took place ; and the police authority enquires into the truth thereof, and if satisfied, fixes such compensation as appears just, according to certain regulations to be made by a secretary of state (sect. 3). Where a claim to compensation has been made in accordance with the regulations, and the claimant is aggrieved by the refusal or failure of the public authority to fix compensation upon such claim, or by the amount of the compensation fixed, he may bring an action against the police authority to recover compensation in respect of all or any of the matters mentioned in such claim (sect. 4). Where any compensation under the Act has been fixed or recovered in action against the police authority, the amount of such compensation, together with all costs and expenses, is to be paid out of moneys held by or on account of the police force ; and the amount required to meet the said payments (in the Act referred to as "riot expenses") is to be raised as part of the police rate (s. 5). The provisions of the Act extend to the plundering of wreck and to riotous injuries to machinery (sect. 6) ; but any insurance moneys recovered go in reduction of the compensation that is payable (sect. 2).

XVIII. Another offence against public order, is that of the *Illegal Destruction* of such beasts and fowls as are ranked under the denomination of *Game ;* and to what we had occasion to say in a former volume on this subject, it is desirable here to add some notice of the penal enactments relative to the destruction of game in the night-time, an offence of considerable gravity. By the Night Poaching Acts, 1828 and 1844, it was provided, that if a person should, *by night*, that is to say, between sunset and sunrise, or within one hour before sunrise or one hour after sunset (*f*), unlawfully take or destroy game or

(*f*) Night Poaching Act, 1828, s. 12.

rabbits, in any land (whether open or enclosed); or on any public road, highway, or path, or the sides thereof; or at the openings, outlets, or gates from any such lands into such roads; or should, *by night*, be in such places, with any gun, net, engine, or other instrument, for the purpose of taking or destroying game,—he should be liable to imprisonment, for the first offence, for any period not exceeding three months, with hard labour, and, at the expiration of such period, to be bound over to his good behaviour by sureties for a year, or (in default of such recognizance) be further imprisoned for six months, or until such sureties were found (*g*). For a second offence, such person is liable to imprisonment for six months, and then to be bound in sureties for two years; and (in default thereof) to be further imprisoned for one year, or until such sureties are found (*h*). And if he should offend a third time, he is guilty of a misdemeanor, and is then liable to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than three years, or to be imprisoned, with hard labour, for any time not exceeding two years (*i*). It was also provided, that when any person should be found committing such offence, it should be lawful for the owner or occupier of the land, or for any person having a right of free warren or free chase therein, or for the lord of the manor, or for the gamekeeper or servant of such persons, or their assistants, to seize and apprehend the person so offending; and in case he should assault or offer violence with an offensive weapon, towards any one so authorised to apprehend him, he is guilty of a misdemeanor, and is liable to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than three years, or to be imprisoned, with hard labour, for any term not exceeding two years (*k*). And it was further enacted, that if *three or more* persons should,

(*g*) Sect. 1.

(*h*) *Ibid.*

(*i*) *Ibid.*; Penal Servitude Acts, 1857 and 1891; *R.* v. *Lines*, [1902] 1 K. B. 199.

(*k*) Night Poaching Act, 1828, s. 2.

by night, unlawfully enter any lands or roads, for the purpose of taking or destroying game or rabbits (any of them being armed with a gun or other offensive weapon), each of such persons should be guilty of a misdemeanor; and they should severally be liable to penal servitude for any term not more than fourteen years, nor less than five (now three) years, or to be imprisoned, with hard labour, for not more than two years (*l*).

XIX. [*An affray* is the fighting of two or more persons in some public place, to the terror of his Majesty's subjects; for if the fighting be in private (as, *e.g.*, a prize-fight), it is no *affray*, but an *assault* (*m*), and it seems that all the spectators are equally liable as for an assault (*n*). Affrays are misdemeanors; and may be suppressed by any private person present, who is justified in endeavouring to part the combatants, whatever consequences may ensue (*o*). More especially constables, who are bound to keep the peace, may break open doors to suppress an affray, or to apprehend the affrayers; and they may either carry the offenders before a justice, or imprison them by their own authority for a convenient space till the heat is over (*p*). But that is while the affray is proceeding, not when it is over (*q*). The punishment of *common* affrays is by fine and imprisonment, the measure of which must be regulated by the circumstances of the case; for, where there is any material aggravation, the punishment proportionably increases. Thus, where two persons coolly and deliberately engage in a duel (*r*), this being attended

(*l*) Sect. 9; *R.* v. *Dowsell* (1834), 6 Car. & P. 398; *R.* v. *Uzzell and Others* (1851), 20 L. J. M. C. 192; *R.* v. *Higgs* (1867), 10 Cox C. C. 527.

(*m*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 63, s. 1.

(*n*) *R.* v. *Hargrave* (1831), 5 Car. & P. 170; *R.* v. *Coney* (1882), 8 Q. B. D. 534.

(*o*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 63, s. 13.

(*p*) *Ibid.*

(*q*) *Fox* v. *Gaunt* (1832), 3 B. & Ad. 798; *R.* v. *Curran* (1826), 1 Mood. 132; *R.* v. *Bright* (1830), 4 Car. & P. 387.

(*r*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 63, s. 21.

[with an apparent intention and danger of murder, and being a high contempt of the justice of the nation, is a strong aggravation of the affray, and may even, as an attempt at murder, amount to felony under the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 14, though no mischief has actually ensued. Again, an affray is aggravated when thereby the ministers of justice are disturbed in the due execution of their office ; or where a respect to the particular place ought to restrain and regulate men's behaviour more than in common ones, as in the king's courts and the like (*s*). For the same reason, all affrays in a church or churchyard are esteemed very heinous offences, as being indignities to Him to whose service those places are consecrated. Therefore mere quarrelsome words, which are neither an affray, nor an offence in any other place, are here penal. For it was enacted, by the 5 & 6 Edw. VI. (1551), c. 4 (*t*), that if any person should, though by words only, quarrel, chide, or brawl in a church or churchyard, the ordinary should suspend him (if a layman) *ab ingressu ecclesiæ*, and (if a clerk in orders) from the ministration of his office during pleasure (*u*) ; and that if any person in such church or churchyard proceeded to smite or lay violent hands upon another, he should be excommunicated *ipso facto*.] And though these enactments are now, by the Ecclesiastical Courts Jurisdiction Act, 1860, s. 1, repealed as to brawling by a person not in holy orders, yet they seem to be in other respects still in force ; and the provisions of the latter Act extend as well to persons in holy orders as to laymen (*x*). The Burial Laws Amendment Act, 1880, s. 7, also provides for the decent and orderly conduct of burials, and makes any obstruction of or indecent conduct at burials a misdemeanor.

(*s*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* c. 21, ss. 6, 10 ; c. 63, s. 23.

(*t*) *Cf.* Toleration Act, 1688, s. 18.

(*u*) *North & Little* v. *Dickson* (1828), 1 Hag. Ecc. 730 ; *Hoile* v. *Scales* (1829), 2 *ib.* 566.

(*x*) *Vallancey* v. *Fletcher*, [1897] 1 Q. B. 265.

XX. [*Riots, routs, and unlawful assemblies* must have three persons at least to constitute them; whereas an affray, as we have just seen, may be between two persons only. A *riot* is a tumultuous disturbance of the peace by three persons, or more, assembling together of their own authority, with an intent mutually to assist one another against any who shall oppose them, in the execution of some enterprise of a private nature; and afterwards actually executing the same in a violent and turbulent manner, to the terror of the people, whether the act intended were of itself lawful or unlawful (*y*). A *rout* is a disturbance of the peace by persons assembling together with an intention to do a thing which, if it be executed, will make them riotous, and actually making a motion towards the execution thereof (*z*). An *unlawful assembly* consists of any meeting whatsoever of more than three people, with such circumstances of terror as cannot but endanger the peace, and raise fears and jealousies among the subjects of the realm (*a*). The punishment of a rioter is fine and imprisonment; and to this (by the Hard Labour Act, 1822) hard labour may be superadded. And the same punishment, but without the addition, attaches to the offences of routs and unlawful assemblies. And by the 13 Hen. IV. (1411), c. 7, any two justices, together with the sheriff or under-sheriff of the county, may come with the *posse comitatûs*, (if need be,) and suppress any such riot, assembly, or rout, arrest the rioters, and record, upon the spot, the nature and circumstances of the whole transaction; which record alone shall be a sufficient conviction of the offenders. In the interpretation of which statute, it hath been holden, that all persons, noblemen, and others, (except women, clergymen, persons

(*y*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 65, s. 1; *R.* v. *Hughes* (1830), 4 Car. & P. 373.

(*z*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* c. 65, s. 8.

(*a*) *Ibid.* s. 9; Seditious Meetings Act, 1817, s. 23; *R.* v. *Hunt and Others* (1820), 1 St. Tri. (N.S.) 171; *Beatty* v. *Gillbanks* (1882), 9 Q. B. D. 308; *Wise* v. *Dunning*, [1902] 1 K. B. 167.

[decrepit, and infants under fifteen,) are bound to attend the justices in suppressing a riot, upon pain of fine and imprisonment (*b*); and that any battery, wounding, or killing the rioters, that may happen in suppressing the riot, is justifiable (*c*). So that our antient law, previous to the Riot Act about to be mentioned, seems pretty well to have guarded against any violent breach of the peace: especially since any riotous assembly on a public or general account,—as to redress grievances, or to pull down all inclosures, and also to resist the royal forces if sent to keep the peace,—may amount to overt acts of treason by levying war against the Crown.

But the riotous assembling of twelve persons or more, *and not dispersing upon proclamation*, is a much more serious offence than to be engaged in an ordinary riot as above defined, which amounts to a misdemeanor only. For that which is now under consideration was made treason by the 3 & 4 Edw. VI. (1549), c. 5, when the king was a minor and a change of religion had to be effected. And though that statute was repealed by the first Act of Queen Mary, among the other treasons created since the twenty-fifth year of Edward the Third, the prohibition was in substance re-enacted, with an inferior degree of punishment, by the 1 Mar. sess. 2 (1554), c. 12, which made the offence a felony. The statutes particularized the nature of the riots they were meant to suppress; as, for example, such as were set on foot with the intention to offer violence to the Privy Council, or to change the laws of the kingdom, or for certain other specified purposes,—in which cases, if the persons were commanded by proclamation to disperse, and they did not, it was by the statute of Mary made felony, but within the benefit of clergy. And the Act indemnified the peace officers and their assistants, if they killed any of the mob in endeavour-

(*b*) *R.* v. *Pinney* (1833), 3 B. & Ad. 947; *R.* v. *Brown* (1841), Car. & M. 314.

(*c*) 1 Hale, P. C. 495; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 65, s. 21.

[ing to suppress such riot. By the 1 Eliz. (1558), c. 16, when the Reformation in religion had to be completed, the Act of Mary was revived; but it expired on Elizabeth's death, and thenceforth and until the death of Queen Anne, it was never once thought expedient to revive it. But in the first year of George the First, it was judged necessary, in order to support the execution of the Act of Settlement, to renew it; and at one stroke to make it perpetual, with large additions.

The former Acts expressly defined and specified what should be accounted a riot; but the Riot Act (*d*) enacts generally, that if any twelve persons are unlawfully assembled to the disturbance of the peace, and any one justice of the peace, sheriff, under-sheriff, or mayor of a town, shall think proper to command them by proclamation to disperse, if they contemn his orders and continue together for one hour afterwards, such contempt shall be a felony. The Riot Act declares further, that if the reading of the proclamation be by force opposed, or the reader be in any manner wilfully hindered from the reading of it, such opposers and hinderers, and all persons to whom such proclamation *ought to have been made*, knowing of such hindrance, and not dispersing, are felons: and they are liable to the like punishment. The same Act also contains a clause indemnifying the officers and their assistants in case any of the mob be unfortunately killed in the endeavour to disperse them, such clause being copied from the Act of Queen Mary.] The punishment for breach of the Act is penal servitude for life, or not less than three years, or imprisonment to the extent of two years with or without hard labour and solitary confinement.

XXI. [Nearly related to this head of riot, is the misdemeanor of *Tumultuous Petitioning*, an abuse which was carried to an enormous height, in the times preceding the

(*d*) 1 Geo. 1 (1714), st. 2, c. 5.

[Civil War. Wherefore, by the 13 Car. II. (1661), st. 1, c. 5, it was enacted, that not more than twenty names should be signed to any petition to the Crown or to either house of parliament, for the alteration of matters established by law in Church or State, unless the contents thereof were previously approved, in the country, by three justices, or the majority of the grand jury at the assizes or quarter sessions, or, in London, by the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council; and that no petition should be delivered by a company of more than ten persons,—on pain, in either case, of incurring a penalty not exceeding 100*l.* and three months' imprisonment.] The provisions of the Act of Charles the Second are in no way affected by the Bill of Rights (*e*); but the Act of Charles is now practically obsolete, and its provisions are no longer of any serious importance. The like observations are applicable also to the Seditious Meetings Act, 1817, s. 23, whereby it was made unlawful for any person to convene, or give notice of convening, any meeting, consisting of more than fifty persons, or for any number of persons exceeding the number of fifty, to meet in any street, square, or open space in the city or liberties of Westminster or county of Middlesex, within a distance of a mile from the gate of Westminster Hall (except such parts of the parish of St. Paul's, Covent Garden, as are within such distance), for the purpose of considering or preparing any petition, complaint, remonstrance, declaration, or other address to both houses or to either house of parliament for alteration of matters in Church or State, on any day on which the two houses or either house of parliament should meet and sit, or should be summoned or adjourned or prorogued to meet or sit, or on any day on which the courts should sit in Westminster Hall. Every such meeting was by the Act made an *unlawful assembly;* but the enactment was not to apply to any meeting for the election of

(*e*) *R.* v. *Lord George Gordon* (1781), Doug. 591.

members to serve in parliament, nor to persons attending upon the business of either house of parliament, or at any of the courts (*f*).

XXII. [Another offence against the peace, is that of a *Forcible Entry or Detainer;* which is committed by violently taking, or keeping possession of lands and tenements, with menaces, force, and arms, and without the authority of law (*g*). A forcible entry, or re-entry, was formerly allowable to every person disseised or turned out of possession, unless his entry was taken away or barred by his own neglect or other circumstances ; but it is now, as well as a forcible detainer, a misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment (*h*).

XXIII. The offence of *Riding or going armed with dangerous or unusual Weapons* is a misdemeanor, tending to disturb the peace, by terrifying the good people of the land ; and it was particularly prohibited by the Statute of Northampton (*i*), upon pain of forfeiture of the arms, and imprisonment during the pleasure of the Crown. In like manner, by the laws of Solon, every Athenian was fineable who walked about the city in armour (*j*).

XXIV. *Spreading False News*, to make discord between the kign and the nobility, or concerning any great man of the realm, is also said in the books to be a misdemeanor, punishable by the common law with fine and imprisonment ; and this is confirmed by the Statute of Westminster the first (*k*), and by the statutes 2 Rich. II. (1378), st. 1, c. 5, and 12 Rich. II. (1388), c. 11.

(*f*) 1 Russ., *Crimes* (6th ed.), 577.

(*g*) *R.* v. *Oakley* (1832), 4 B. & Ad. 307 ; *R.* v. *Wilson* (1835), 3 A. & E. 817 ; 1 Russ., *Crimes* (6th ed.), 717.

(*h*) 5 Ric. 2 (1381) st. 1, c. 7 ; 15 Ric. 2 (1391) c. 2 ; 31 Eliz. (1588) c. 11 ; 21 Jac. 1 (1623) c. 15 ; *Beddall* v. *Maitland* (1881), 17 Ch. D. 174 ; *Jones* v. *Foley*, [1891] 1 Q. B. 730.

(*i*) 2 Ed. 3 (1328), c. 3.

(*j*) Pott. *Antiq.* b. 1, c. 26.

(*k*) 3 Edw. 1 (1275), c. 34 ; 2 Inst. 226 ; 3 Inst. 198.

XXV. [*False and Pretended Prophecies*, with intent to disturb the peace, are equally unlawful, as they raise enthusiastic jealousies in the people, and terrify them with imaginary fears; and they are punishable as misdemeanors, upon the same principle that the spreading of public news of any kind, without communicating it first to the magistrate, was prohibited by the antient Gauls (*l*). Indeed, the offence was made capital by the 33 Hen. VIII. (1541), c. 14, though this was altered by the 3 & 4 Edw. VI. (1549), c. 15, and 7 Edw. VI. (1552), c. 11; and afterwards, by the 5 Eliz. (1562), c. 15, the penalty for the first offence was made a fine of ten pounds and one year's imprisonment, and for the second, forfeiture of all goods and chattels and imprisonment during life.] But all these enactments are now, in effect, obsolete.

XXVI. Besides actual breaches of the peace (of which enough has been said), any thing that tends to provoke or incite others to break the peace, is also an offence against public order. Therefore, *Challenges to Fight*, either by word or letter, or the bearing of such challenges, are misdemeanors, punishable by fine and imprisonment, according to the circumstances of the offence (*m*).

XXVII. We come next to consider offences against public order when considered in its EXTERNAL (that is to say, INTERNATIONAL) aspect. These offences are provided for by the universal law of society, and are also in some instances particularly animadverted on by the English law.

[The law of nations is a system of rules, established

(*l*) "*Habent legibus sanctum, si "quis quid de republicâ a finitimis "rumore aut famâ acceperit, uti "ad magistratum deferat, neve "cum alio communicet; quod sæpe "homines temerarios atque imperi- "tos falsis rumoribus terreri, et ad "facinus impelli, et de summis "rebus consilium capere cognitum "est.*" (Cæs. *de Bell. Gall.* lib. 6, cap. 19.)

(*m*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 63, ss. 3, 21.

[by universal consent, among the civilized inhabitants of the world, in order to decide all disputes, to regulate all ceremonies and civilities, and to ensure the observance of justice and good faith, in that intercourse which must frequently occur between independent states. As none of these states will allow a superiority in the other, therefore neither can dictate or prescribe the rules of this law to the rest; but such rules must necessarily result from those principles of natural justice, in which all the learned of every nation agree, or from mutual compacts or treaties between the respective communities. In arbitrary states, this law, whenever it contradicts or is not provided for by the municipal law of the country, is enforced by the royal power; but since in England no royal power can introduce a new law, or suspend the execution of the old, therefore the law of nations, whenever any question arises which is properly the object of its jurisdiction, is here adopted in its full extent by the common law, and held to be the law of the land. Hence those Acts of Parliament, which have from time to time been made to enforce this universal law, or to facilitate the execution of its decisions, are not to be considered as introductive of any new rule, but merely as declaratory of the old fundamental constitutions of the kingdom, without which it must cease to be a part of the civilized world. But though, in civil transactions and questions of property between the subjects of different states, the law of nations has much scope and extent, as adopted by the law of England; yet the present branch of our enquiries will fall within a narrow compass, as offences against the law of nations can rarely be the object of the criminal law of any particular state. For offences against this law are principally incident to whole states or nations; in which case, recourse can only be had to war, which is an appeal to the God of Hosts, to punish such infractions of public faith as are committed by one independent people against another, neither state having any superior jurisdiction to resort to upon earth for justice.

[But where the individuals of any state violate this general law, it is then the interest, as well as the duty, of the government under which they live, to animadvert upon them with a becoming severity, that the peace of the world may be maintained. For in vain would nations, in their collective capacity, observe these universal rules, if private subjects were at liberty to break them at their own discretion, and involve the two states in a war. It is, therefore, incumbent upon the nation injured, first to demand satisfaction and justice to be done on the offender, by the state to which he belongs; and if that be refused or neglected, and the matter is not submitted to the arbitration of some international tribunal, the sovereign then avows himself an accomplice or abettor of his subject's crime, and draws upon his community the calamities of foreign war.

The principal offences against the law of nations, punished as such by the law of England, are of three kinds: (1) The violation of safe-conducts; (2) The infringement of the rights of ambassadors; and (3) The crime of piracy.

(1.) As to the *violation of the safe-conducts or passports*, expressly granted by the king or his ambassadors, to the subjects of a foreign power, in time of mutual war, or the committing acts of hostility against such as are in amity, league, or truce with us, who are, in this case, under a general implied safe-conduct,—these are breaches of the public faith, without the preservation of which, there can be no intercourse or commerce between one nation and another. And as during the continuance of any safe-conduct, either express or implied, the foreigner is under the protection of the king and the law, and more especially as it is one of the articles of *Magna Carta*, that foreign merchants shall be entitled to safe-conduct and security throughout the kingdom (*n*); there is no question

(*n*) 9 Hen. 3 (1225), c. 30.

[but that any violation of either the person or the property of such a foreigner may be punished by indictment in the name of the king, whose honour is more particularly engaged in supporting his own safe-conduct. And when this malicious rapacity was not confined to private individuals, but broke out into general hostilities, then, by the statute 2 Hen. V. (1414), st. 1, c. 6, the breaking of truce and safe-conducts, or abetting and receiving the truce breakers, was (in affirmance and support of the law of nations) declared to be high treason against the crown and dignity of the king; and conservators of truce and safe-conducts were appointed in every port, and empowered to hear and determine such treasons when committed at sea, according to the antient marine law then practised in the admiral's court. Which statute, so far as it made these offences amount to treason, was suspended by the 14 Hen. VI. (1435), c. 8, and repealed by the 20 Hen. VI. (1441), c. 11; but it was revived by the 29 Hen. VI. (1450), c. 2, which gave the same powers to the lord chancellor, associated with either of the chief justices, as belonged to the conservators of truce and their assessors, and enacted, that, notwithstanding the party be convicted of treason, the injured stranger should have restitution out of his effects, prior to any claim of the Crown. And it was further enacted, by the 31 Hen. VI. (1452), c. 4, that if any of the king's subjects offend, upon the sea or in any port within the king's obeisance, against any stranger in amity, league, or truce, or under safe-conduct,—and especially by attacking his person, or spoiling him or robbing him of his goods—the lord chancellor, (with any of the justices of either the King's Bench or Common Pleas,) may cause full restitution and amends to be made to the party injured.

It is to be observed, that the suspending and repealing Acts of the fourteenth and twentieth years of Henry the Sixth, and also the reviving Act of the twenty-ninth of the same monarch, were only temporary; so that it should

[seem that, after the expiration of them all, the statute of the second year of Henry the Fifth continued in full force. But yet it was considered as extinct by the statute 14 Edw. IV. (1474), c. 4, which revived and confirmed all statutes and ordinances made before the accession of the House of York against breakers of amities, truces, leagues, and safe-conducts, with an express exception of the statute of 2 Hen. V. (1414), st. 1, c. 6. However that may be, this statute was finally repealed by the general statutes of Edward the Sixth and Queen Mary, for abolishing newly created treasons, though Sir Matthew Hale seems to question it, as to treason committed on the sea (*o*) ;] and the statute of 31 Hen. VI. (1452), c. 4, remained in our statute book till the year 1863, when it was repealed as obsolete.

(2.) *The infringement of the rights of ambassadors.*— These have formerly been treated of at large, in that part of this work in which we discussed the nature and extent of the royal prerogative ; and it may be recollected, that any violation of those rights amounts, by express legislative enactment, to a crime of a highly penal nature (*p*).

(3.) [*The crime of Piracy*, or robbery and depredation upon the high seas, is an offence against the universal law of society, a pirate being, according to Sir Edward Coke, *hostis humani generis* (*q*). As, therefore, he has renounced all the benefits of society and government, and has reduced himself afresh to the savage state of nature, by declaring war against all mankind, all mankind must declare war against him ; so that every community hath a right, by the rule of self-defence, to inflict that punishment upon him, which every individual would, in a state of nature, have been otherwise entitled to do, for any invasion of his person or personal property.

By the antient common law, piracy if committed by an alien was felony, but if by a subject was held to be a

(*o*) 1 Hale, P. C. 267.
(*p*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. p. 493.
(*q*) 3 Inst. 113.

[species of treason, being contrary to his natural allegiance. But now, since the Treason Act, 1351, it is held to amount only to an ordinary felony (*r*). At the common law, it consisted in committing those acts of robbery and depredation upon the high seas, or other places where the admiralty has jurisdiction, which, if committed upon land, would have amounted to felony there (*s*). But, by statute, some other offences have been made piracy also; as, by the 11 & 12 Will. III. (1698), c. 7, if any natural-born subject commits any act of hostility upon the high seas, against others of his Majesty's subjects, under colour of a commission from any foreign power, this, though it would be only an act of war in an alien, shall be construed piracy in a subject (*t*). And further (by the same Act), any commander, or other seafaring person, betraying his trust, and running away with any ship, boat, ordnance, ammunition, or goods, or yielding them up, voluntarily, to a pirate, or conspiring to do these acts, or any person assaulting the commander of a vessel to hinder him from fighting his ship, or confining him, or making or endeavouring to make a revolt on board, shall be adjudged a pirate, felon, and robber (*u*).

Again, by the Piracy Act, 1721 (made perpetual by the 2 Geo. II. (1729), c. 28, s. 7), the trading with known pirates, or furnishing them with stores or ammunition, or fitting out any vessel for that purpose, or in anywise consulting, combining, confederating, or corresponding with them, and the forcible boarding any merchant vessel, though without seizing or carrying her off, and the destroying or throwing any of the goods overboard,—was declared to be piracy. Moreover, by the Piracy Act, 1744,

(*r*) 3 Inst. 113.

(*s*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 37; *Trial of Captain William Kidd and Others* (1701), 14 St. Tri. 147.

(*t*) Sect. 8. *Cf. R.* v. *Captain John Quelch* (1704), 14 St. Tri. 1067.

(*u*) Sect. 9. *R.* v. *McGregor* (1844), 1 Car & K. 430; *R.* v. *Hastings* (1825), 1 Mood. 82; *R.* v. *Jones* (1870), 11 Cox C.C. 393.

[any natural-born subject or denizen, who in time of war shall commit hostilities at sea against any of his fellow subjects, or shall assist an enemy on that element, is liable to be tried and convicted as a pirate.] And, lastly, a further addition was made to the list of piratical offences, by the Slave Trade Act, 1824, which enacted, that if any British subject, wherever residing, or any other person residing within the dominions of Great Britain, should (except in some particular cases therein specified (*x*)), within the jurisdiction of the admiralty, knowingly convey (or assist in conveying) persons as slaves, or to be dealt with as slaves, or ship them for that purpose, he should be deemed guilty of piracy, felony, and robbery (*y*).

As regards the punishment for piratical offences, that was, in general, death ; but it was thought expedient to relax this severity. And now, whoever shall be convicted of piracy, is liable to be sentenced to penal servitude for life or any term not less than three years, or to be imprisoned, (with or without hard labour,) for any term not more than two years (*a*). But whoever, with intent to commit, or at the time of or immediately before or after committing, the crime of piracy, shall assault with intent to murder, or stab or wound, or unlawfully do any act by which the life of any person on board of or belonging to any ship or vessel may be endangered, is liable to suffer death as a felon (*b*) ; though (in a deserving case) the sentence of death may be *recorded*, instead of being pronounced in open court, the effect being to save the offender's life (*c*).

(*x*) These exceptional cases were abolished by the Slavery Abolition Act, 1833, which abolished Slavery in British colonies, plantations, and possessions abroad.

(*y*) *R.* v. *Zulueta* (1843), 1 Car. & K. 215 ; *Buron* v. *Denman* (1848), 2 Exch. 167.

(*a*) Piracy Act, 1837, s. 3 ; Penal Servitude Acts, 1857 and 1891.

(*b*) Piracy Act, 1837, s. 2.

(*c*) Judgment of Death Act, 1853, s. 1.

CHAPTER VII.

OF OFFENCES AGAINST RELIGION, MORALS AND PUBLIC CONVENIENCE.

In our further consideration of offences against public rights, we arrive, secondly, at the consideration of—

(B.) Offences against religion, morals, and public convenience.—And of offences against religion, the first we will notice is—

I. [*Apostasy.*—This consists in the total renunciation of Christianity, by embracing either a false religion or no religion at all. This offence can only take place, in such as have once professed the true religion. The perversion of a Christian to Judaism, paganism, or other false religion, was punished by the Emperors Constantius and Julian with confiscation of goods (*a*) ; to which the Emperors Theodosius and Valentinian added capital punishment, in case the apostate endeavoured to pervert others to the same iniquity (*b*). The zeal of our ancestors imported this punishment into this country ; and we find from Bracton, that in his time apostates were burnt to death (*c*). Doubtless the preservation of Christianity, as a national religion, is of the utmost consequence to the State ; and therefore all endeavours on the part of those who have once professed it to depreciate its efficacy are highly deserving of censure. But the loss of life is a heavier penalty than the offence, regarded in a civil light, deserves ; and of course, regarded in a spiritual light, our laws have no jurisdiction over it. This punishment,

(*a*) Cod. L. 1, 7, 1.
(*b*) *Ibid.* 6.
(*c*) L. 3, c. 9.

[therefore, has long been obsolete; and the offence of apostasy was for a long time the object only of the ecclesiastical courts, which corrected the offender *pro salute animæ*. But about the close of the seventeenth century, the civil liberties to which we were then restored being used as a cloak of maliciousness, and the most horrid doctrines, subversive of all religion, being publicly avowed, both in speech and writing, it was thought necessary again for the civil power to interpose, by not admitting those miscreants to the privileges of society, who maintained such principles as destroyed all moral obligation (*d*). To this end it was enacted, by the 9 Will. III. (1697), c. 35, that if any person educated in, or having made profession of, the Christian religion, should by writing, printing, teaching, or advised speaking, assert or maintain there are more Gods than one, or deny that Christ was God, or that the Christian religion was true, or deny the holy scriptures of the old and new testament to be of divine authority, he should upon the first offence be rendered incapable to hold any ecclesiastical, civil, or military office or employment; and for the second, should be rendered incapable of bringing any action, or of being guardian, executor, legatee, or donee, and should suffer three years' imprisonment without bail. To give room, however, for repentance, if within four months after the first conviction, the delinquent would in the court in which he was convicted renounce his error, he was discharged for that once from all penalties and disabilities.] The Act of William the Third is still in force, save so far as repealed by the 53 Geo. III. (1812), c. 160 (*e*); but there seems to be no instance of a prosecution under its provisions.

II. [*Heresy*.—This offence consists not in a total denial of Christianity, but in the public and obstinate denial of

(*d*) *Mescroyantz* in our antient law books is the name of *unbelievers*.

(*e*) *R.* v. *Waddington* (1822), 1 B. & C. 26; 1 St. Tri. (N.S.) 1339.

[some of its principal doctrines (*f*). Heresy was described among the canonists, in vague and general terms, as consisting of any deviation from the true Catholic faith, as understood by Holy Mother Church (*g*) ; very contrary to the usage of the first general councils, which defined all heretical doctrines with the utmost precision and exactness, and spoke of heretics by name, as in the case of the Manichæans, Nestorians, and others (*h*). The cognizance of heresy has always been held in every country, where the canon law has prevailed, to belong to the ecclesiastical judge (*i*) ; and the canonists have ever treated heresy with great severity. On the continent they prevailed upon the weakness of princes to make heresy a temporal, and even a capital offence ; the Romish ecclesiastics determining without appeal whatever they pleased to be heresy, and shifting off to the secular arm the odium and drudgery of executions, while they themselves merely prayed on behalf of the convicted heretic, *ut citra mortis periculum sententia circa eum moderetur* (*k*). Hence the capital punishments inflicted on the antient Donatists and Manichæans, by the Emperors Theodosius and Justinian (*l*) ; hence also the constitution of the Emperor Frederic, mentioned by Lyndewode (*m*), adjudging all persons without distinction to be burned by fire who were convicted of heresy by the ecclesiastical judge. The same Emperor, in another constitution, ordained, that if any temporal lord, when admonished by the Church, should neglect to clear his territories of heretics within a year, it should be lawful for any good Catholics to seize and occupy the lands, and utterly exterminate the heretical possessors (*n*) ; and upon this foundation was built that

(*f*) 1 Hale, P. C. 384.

(*g*) "*Hæreticus, qui de articulis "fidei aliter prædicat, sentit vel "docet, quàm docet sancta mater "ecclesia.*"—See 1 Hale, P. C. 383.

(*h*) Hale, *ubi sup.*

(*i*) Year Book, 27 Hen. 8, 14 b ; stat. 2 Hen. 4 (1401), c. 15.

(*k*) Greg. Decret. lib. 5, t. 40, c. 27.

(*l*) Cod. l. i. tit. 5.

(*m*) C. *de Hæreticis.*

(*n*) Cod. l. 5, 4.

[arbitrary power, so long claimed and so fatally exercised by the Pope, of disposing even of the kingdoms of refractory princes, to more dutiful sons of the Church. It is said that this very Frederic himself was, under this law, deprived of his kingdom of Sicily by the Pope ; who bestowed it on Charles of Anjou.

Christianity being thus deformed by persecution on the continent, our own island was not entirely free from the same scourge ; for our ecclesiastical courts were in the habit not only of proceeding against heretics by spiritual punishments, such as penance, excommunication, and the like, but, by means of the writ *de hæretico comburendo*, punished the offenders also with temporal chastisements (*o*). However, it was not the practice under the common law to issue this writ, except upon a conviction which took place before the archbishop himself in a provincial synod or convocation ; and even that authority could not lawfully award the writ, but merely left the delinquent to the secular power. So that the Crown might pardon him, if it thought proper, by forbearing to issue the writ ; which was not grantable as of course, but only issued by the special direction of the king in council (*p*). But in the reign of Henry the Fourth, when the seeds of a more pronounced Protestantism, under the name of Lollardy (*q*) began to take root in this kingdom, the clergy obtained an Act of Parliament (2 Hen. IV. 1400), c. 15), which sharpened the edge of persecution to its utmost keenness. For, by that statute, the diocesan alone, without the intervention of a synod, might convict of heretical tenets ; and unless the convict abjured his

(*o*) 1 Hale, P. C. 388, n., 392 ; Hawk. b. 1, c. 2, s. 10.

(*p*) 1 Hale, P. C. 385, 391, 393, 395 ; 12 Rep. 56, 57.

(*q*) So called, not from *lolium* or tares (an etymology which was afterwards devised in order to justify the burning of them, from Matth. xiii. 30), but from one Walter Lolhard, a German reformer, A.D. 1315 (*Mod. Un. Hist.* xxvi. 13 ; *Spelm. Gloss.* 371) ; or, as some hold, from *lollen*, to sing, with reference to their psalm-singing. (D'Aubigné, *Hist. of Reformation*, vol. v. p. 130.)

[opinions, or if, after abjuration, he relapsed, the sheriff was bound *ex officio*, if required by the bishop, to commit the unhappy victim to the flames, without waiting for the consent of the Crown. By the 2 Hen. V. (1414), st. 1, c. 7, Lollardy was also made a temporal offence, indictable in the king's courts; which courts thereby acquired a concurrent jurisdiction, in the matter of heresy, with the bishop's consistory.

Afterwards, as the reformation of religion advanced, the power of the ecclesiastics became somewhat moderated; for the 25 Hen. VIII. (1533), c. 14, declared, that offences against the see of Rome were not heretical, and restrained the ordinary from proceeding in any case of alleged heresy, upon mere suspicion,—that is, unless the party was accused by two credible witnesses, or an indictment for the offence was first found in the king's courts of common law. And yet, only six years afterwards, by the 31 Hen. VIII. (1539), c. 14, the bloody law of the Six Articles was passed, which established the six most contested points of popery—transubstantiation, communion in one kind, the celibacy of the clergy, monastic vows, the sacrifice of the mass, and auricular confession; which points were "determined and resolved by the most godly "study, pain, and travail of his majesty, for which his "most humble and obedient subjects, the lords spiritual "and temporal, and the commons, in parliament assembled, "did not only render and give unto his highness their "most high and hearty thanks," but did also enact and declare all oppugners of the first to be heretics, and to be burned with fire, and of the five last, to be felons, and to suffer death. The same statute established a new and mixed jurisdiction of clergy and laity for the trial and conviction of heretics, the reigning prince being then equally intent on destroying the supremacy of the bishops of Rome, and maintaining all their superstitious corruptions of the Christian religion.

[We shall not enter into the various repeals and revivals of these sanguinary laws in the two succeeding reigns; but shall proceed directly to the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when the Reformation was established on a firm and permanent basis. By the 1 Eliz. c. 1 (the Act of Supremacy, 1558) all former statutes relating to heresy were repealed, and by this means the jurisdiction in matters of heresy was left as it stood at common law; that is, it became again a simple offence to be visited by spiritual punishments in the ecclesiastical courts, or, after a conviction in the provincial synod, by burning, under the writ *de hæretico comburendo*. But the principal point then gained was, that by this statute a boundary was for the first time set to what would be accounted heresy; that is to say, those tenets only were heretical which had been theretofore so declared, either (1) by the words of the Canonical Scriptures, or (2) by the first four general councils, or such others as had only used the words of the Holy Scriptures, or (3) which should thereafter be declared heresy by the parliament, with the assent of the clergy in convocation. But the writ *de hæretico comburendo*, with such modified application of it, still remained in force; and was put in execution upon two Anabaptists in the seventeenth year of Elizabeth, and upon two Arians in the ninth year of James the First. But it was totally abolished, and heresy subjected only to ecclesiastical correction *pro salute animæ*, by virtue of the 29 Car. II. (1677), c. 9.

III. Another species of offence against God and religion is that of *Blasphemy* against the Almighty, by denying His being or His providence; or by contumelious reproaches of our Saviour Christ. To which head, also, may be referred all profane scoffing at the Holy Scripture, or exposing it to contempt and ridicule. These are offences punishable at the common law, by fine and imprison-

[ment or other infamous corporal punishment (*r*); for Christianity is part of the law of England (*s*).

IV. A fourth species of offences against religion are those which affect the Established Church; and these have been said to be either positive or negative:—positive, by reviling its ordinances; or negative, by non-conformity to its worship. But we shall confine our remarks to the former class: the latter being in effect abolished by the gradual extension of the principle of religious toleration, the history of which has been already traced in that part of this work where we had occasion to consider the Church and its worship (*t*).

Reviling the Ordinances of the Church is a crime which carries with it the utmost indecency, arrogance, and ingratitude,—indecency, by setting up private judgment in virulent and factious opposition to public authority, arrogance, by treating with contempt and rudeness, what has at least a better chance to be right than the individual notions of any one man, and ingratitude, by denying that indulgence and undisturbed liberty of conscience to the members of the national Church, which the worshippers in every petty conventicle enjoy. And, accordingly, it was provided, by the 1 Edw. VI. (1547), c. 1 and 1 Eliz. c. 1 (Act of Supremacy, 1558), that whoever reviled the sacrament of the Lord's Supper should be punished by fine and imprisonment; and by the 1 Eliz. c. 2 (Act of Uniformity, 1558), that if any *ordained minister* should speak any thing in derogation of the Book of Common Prayer, he should, if not beneficed, be imprisoned one year for the first offence, and for life for the second, and, if beneficed, he should for the first offence be imprisoned six months, and forfeit a year's value of his benefice, for the

(*r*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 5, s. 5.

(*s*) Year Book, 34 Hen. 6, 40; Hawk. *ubi sup.*; 1 Vent. 293; *R.* v. *Woolston* (1721), 2 Stra. 834; *R.* v. *Carlile* (1819), 3 B. & Ald. 161; *Cowan* v. *Milbourn* (1867) L. R. 2 Exch. 230.

(*t*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 674—677.

[second offence, be deprived and suffer one year's imprisonment; and for the third, suffer imprisonment for life. The same Act also provided, that if *any* person should in plays, songs, or other open words, speak any thing in derogation, depraving, or despising of the said Book of Common Prayer, or forcibly prevent the reading of it, or cause any other service to be used in its stead, he should forfeit, for the first offence, a hundred marks; for the second, four hundred; and for the third, all his goods and chattels, and suffer imprisonment for life. These penalties were framed in the infancy of our present establishment, when the disciples both of Rome and of Geneva united in inveighing with the utmost bitterness against the English liturgy; and the terror of these laws proved a principal means, under Providence, of preserving the purity as well as the decency of our national worship. Nor can the penalties provided by these enactments be thought too severe and intolerant, so far as they are levelled at the offence, not of *thinking* differently from the national Church, but of openly *railing* at that Church. For though it is clear that no restraint should be laid upon rational and dispassionate discussion of the established mode of worship, yet contumely and contempt are what no establishment can tolerate.

V. Another offence against God and religion is that of profane and common *Swearing and Cursing*. And by the Profane Oaths Act, 1745, which repealed all former statutes on this subject, every labourer, sailor, or soldier profanely cursing or swearing, shall forfeit one shilling (*u*), every other person, under the degree of a gentleman, two shillings, and every gentleman, or person of superior rank, five shillings, to the poor of the parish wherein

(*u*) By the Naval Discipline Act, 1866, any person subject to that Act, who shall be guilty of profane swearing, shall be dismissed his Majesty's service with disgrace, or suffer such lesser punishment as is by that Act authorized (s. 27).

[such offence was committed (*x*) ; and, on a second conviction, shall forfeit double, and for every subsequent offence, treble, the sum first forfeited, with all charges of conviction, and (in default of payment) shall be sent to the house of correction for ten days. Any justice of the peace may convict upon his own hearing or the testimony of one witness ; and any constable or peace officer, upon his own hearing, may secure the offender and carry him before a justice, and there convict him. But the conviction must be within eight days after the committal of the offence. If either omits his duty, the justice forfeits five pounds, and the constable forty shillings.] Swearing, or otherwise using bad language, in any public library, is a misdemeanor, and fineable (*y*).

VI. [Another offence of the description under consideration is that of *using pretended Witchcraft, Conjuration, Enchantment, and Sorcery.*—Our law once included in the list of crimes, that of *actual* witchcraft or intercourse with evil spirits ; and though it has now no longer a place among them, its exclusion is not to be understood as implying a denial of the possibility of such an offence. To deny this, would be to contradict the revealed word of God in various passages both of the Old and New Testament : and the thing itself is a truth to which every nation in the world hath in its turn borne testimony, either by examples seemingly well attested, or by prohibitory laws, which at least suppose the possibility of a commerce with evil spirits. Wherefore it seems to be the most eligible way to conclude, with an ingenious writer, that in general there has been such a thing as witchcraft, though one cannot give credit to any particular modern instance of it (*z*).

Our forefathers, however, were stronger believers when they enacted, by the 33 Hen. VIII. (1541), c. 8, that all

(*x*) *R.* v. *Scott* (1863), 4 Best & Sm. 368.

(*y*) Libraries Offences Act, 1898.

(*z*) Mr. Addison, *Spect.* No. 117.

[witchcraft and sorcery should be felony without benefit of clergy ; and, by the 1 Jac. I. (1603), c. 12, that all persons invoking any evil spirit, or consulting, covenanting with, entertaining, employing, feeding, or rewarding any evil spirit, or taking up dead bodies from their graves to be used in any witchcraft, sorcery, charm, or enchantment, or killing or otherwise hurting any person by such infernal arts, should be guilty of felony and should suffer death ; and that if any person should attempt, by sorcery, to discover hidden treasure, or to restore stolen goods, or to provoke unlawful love, or to hurt any man or beast, (though the same were not effected), he or she should suffer imprisonment and pillory for the first offence, and death for the second. These Acts long continued in force, to the terror of all antient females in the kingdom ; and many poor wretches were sacrificed thereby to the prejudice of their neighbours. But all prosecutions for this dubious crime are now at an end, our legislature having at length followed the wise example of Louis the Fourteenth of France, who thought proper by an edict to restrain the tribunals of justice from receiving informations of witchcraft (*a*). Accordingly, it was enacted, by the Witchcraft Act, 1735, that no proceeding for the future should be carried on against any person for witchcraft, sorcery, enchantment, or conjuration, or for charging another with any such offence. But, by the same statute, persons who *pretended* to use witchcraft, to tell fortunes, or to discover stolen goods by skill in any occult or crafty science, were made punishable by imprisonment ;] and by the Vagrancy Act, 1824, s. 4, any person who shall use subtle craft, means, or device, by palmistry (*b*) or otherwise, to deceive the lieges, is to be deemed a *rogue* and a *vagabond*, and may be punished with imprisonment and hard labour (*c*).

(*a*) Voltaire, *Siècle Louis XIV.*, c. 29 ; *Mod. Un. Hist.* xxv. 215.

(*b*) *Monck* v. *Hilton* (1877), 2 Ex. D. 268 ; *R.* v. *Entwistle*, [1899] 1 Q. B. 846.

(*c*) As to *rogues and vagabonds*, *vide post*, p. 218.

VII. [A seventh species of offenders are all *Religious Impostors*, such as falsely pretend to an extraordinary commission from heaven, or who terrify and abuse the people with false denunciations of judgments. These, as tending to subvert all religion by bringing it into ridicule and contempt, are punishable by the temporal courts, with fine, imprisonment, and infamous corporal punishment (*d*).

VIII. *Simony* may also be considered as an offence against religion, by reason of the sacredness of the charge which is thereby profanely bought and sold. Its nature and the penalties to which it is subject having been already described, when we treated of the endowments and provisions of the Church (*e*), it will be unnecessary to recur to them in this place. We therefore pass on to consider—

IX. *Profanation of the Lord's Day* or *Sabbath-breaking*, which is another offence of the class now in question. It is unquestionable, that the keeping one day in seven holy, as a time of relaxation and refreshment, as well as for public worship, considered merely as a civil institution, is of admirable service to the state. It humanizes the manners of the lower classes, which would otherwise degenerate into a sordid ferocity, and savage selfishness of spirit; it enables the industrious workman to pursue his occupation in the ensuing week with health and cheerfulness; and it imprints on the minds of the people that sense of their duty to God so necessary to make them good citizens, but which yet would be worn out and effaced by an unremitted continuance of labour without any stated times of worship. Accordingly, the laws of King Athelstan forbade all merchandizing on the Lord's day, under very severe penalties (*f*); and, by the statute 27 Hen. VI.

(*d*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 5, ss. 3, 5.

(*e*) *Vide* vol. II. pp. 685—687.

(*f*) C. 26.

[(1448), c. 5, no fair or market might be held on Good Fridays or on any Sunday, except the four Sundays in harvest, or for necessary victual, on pain of forfeiting the goods exposed to sale. And, since, by the Sunday Observance Act, 1625, no persons shall assemble, out of their own parishes, for any sport whatever upon this day; nor, in their parishes, shall use any bull or bear baiting, interludes, plays, or other *unlawful* exercises or pastimes, on pain that every offender shall pay three shillings and fourpence to the poor.] And by the Sunday Observance Act, 1677, no tradesman, artificer, workman, labourer, or other person whatever (*g*), is allowed to do any work of his ordinary calling upon the Lord's day, works of necessity and charity only excepted, on pain that every person, of fourteen years, so offending, shall forfeit five shillings. And no person may publicly expose to sale any wares whatever upon the Lord's day, upon pain of forfeiting the goods; nor any drover, or the like, travel or come into his inn or lodging, upon pain of forfeiting twenty shillings; nor any person serve or execute any process, (except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace); and such service or execution, if made, will be void to all intents and purposes whatever (*h*). But in 1871, Jews were exempted, subject to certain specified conditions, from the obligation of the Sunday Observance Act, 1677 (*i*); and at the present day, no prosecution under that statute is to be instituted, unless with the written consent of the chief officer of police, or of two justices, or of a stipendiary magistrate (*k*). The penalties

(*g*) *Palmer* v. *Snow*, [1900] 1 Q. B. 725 (a barber held not to be within the statute).

(*h*) *Sandiman* v. *Breach* (1827), 7 B. & C. 96; *R.* v. *Whitnash* (1827), *id.* 596; *Peate* v. *Dicken* (1834), 5 Tyrw. 116; *Beaumont* v. *Brengeri* (1847), 5 C. B. 301.

(*i*) See now the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, s. 48. *Goldstein* v. *Vaughan*, [1897] 1 Q. B. 549.

(*k*) Sunday Observance Prosecution Act, 1871; *Thorpe* v. *Priestnall*, [1897]1 Q. B. 159.

incurred for a breach of the Act may be, and usually are, remitted (*l*) ; moreover, the plying of certain particular trades on Sundays is regulated by particular statutes (*m*). But as regards places of public resort on the Lord's day, it is provided by the Sunday Observance Act, 1780, that any house which shall be used for public entertainment or public debate on the Lord's day, and to which persons shall be admitted by the payment of money (*n*), shall be deemed a *disorderly house*, and the keeper of such house shall forfeit a penalty of 200*l*. a day, and be subject to the punishment which the law provides in the case of houses of that description (*o*). There are, also, enactments prohibiting, under a penalty, the sale of intoxicating liquors in public-houses and other licensed premises within certain hours, on any Sunday, Christmas-day, or Good Friday, unless to a lodger in the house, or to a *bonâ fide* traveller.

X. The offences already noticed are against religion, so far as its outward forms come within the sanction of municipal law ; but before we proceed to other offences ranging themselves under the general heading of this chapter, we must notice, as an offence against morals, [the infamous *Crime against Nature*, committed either with man or beast,—a crime which ought to be strictly and impartially proved, and then as strictly and impartially punished. But it is an offence of so dark a nature, so easily charged, and the negative so difficult to be proved, that (as observed elsewhere in connection with the crime of rape) the accusation should be clearly made out ; for, if

(*l*) Remission of Penalties Act, 1875.

(*m*) See as to *carriers*, 3 Car. 1 (1627), c. 2 ; *fish-carriers*, Fish Carriage Act, 1762 ; *watermen*, 11 Will. 3 (1700), c. 21, s. 13 ; 7 & 8 Geo. 4 (1827), c. lxxv. It is unlawful on Sunday or Christmas Day to *kill game*, Game Act, 1831, s. 3.

(*n*) *Baxter* v. *Langley* (1868), L. R. 4 C. P. 21 ; *Reid* v. *Wilson*, [1895] 1 Q. B. 315.

(*o*) *Terry* v. *Brighton Aquarium Co.* (1875), L. R. 10 Q. B. 306 ; *Warner* v. *Same* (1875), L. R. 10 Exch. 291. As to disorderly houses, *ride post*, p. 204.

[false, it deserves a punishment inferior only to that of the crime itself. We will not describe the nature of this offence, but will imitate in this respect the delicacy of our English law, which treats it as a crime not fit to be named; and we will proceed merely to mention how it is made punishable. In our own country, in the times of popery, it was only subject to ecclesiastical censures: but it was made felony, without benefit of clergy, by the 25 Hen. VIII. (1533), c. 6 (revived and confirmed by the 5 Eliz. (1562), c. 17), and, until 1861, it remained a capital offence (*p*).] But now, by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 61, every person convicted of this abominable crime, committed either with mankind or with any animal, is to be kept in penal servitude for life, or not less than three years, with the alternative of two years' imprisonment. And the rule of law herein is, that, if both are arrived at years of discretion, *agentes et consentientes pari pœnâ plectantur* (*q*); and whoever *attempts* to commit this crime, or is guilty of an assault with intent to commit the same, or of any indecent assault upon any male person, commits a misdemeanor, punishable with penal servitude for ten or not less than three years, or imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding two years (*r*). And by the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885, any male person who, either in public or in private, commits, or aids or attempts the commission, on any male person, of any gross act of indecency, is made guilty of a misdemeanor, and may be punished with imprisonment for any period not exceeding two years, with or without hard labour (*s*).

XI. Arriving, now, at those offences of a miscellaneous description which militate against public convenience, we

(*p*) 9 Geo. 4 (1828), c. 31, repealed by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861.

(*q*) 3 Inst. 59.

(*r*) Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 62.

(*s*) *R.* v. *Jones & Bowerbank*, [1896] 1 Q. B. 4.

shall here refer to the *sale of unwholesome and adulterated provisions* and to some other practices savouring of dishonesty, which are injurious to the health or well-being of the community. [As to the sale of provisions, so long ago as the statute 51 Hen. III. (1266), st. 6, the sale of contagious or unwholesome *flesh*, or flesh bought of a Jew, was prohibited under pain of amercement, fine and imprisonment, and abjuration of the town, according to the frequency of the offence (*t*); and by the statute 12 Car. II. (1660), c. 25, any adulteration of *wine* was made punishable with the forfeiture of 100*l.* if done by the wholesale merchant, and 40*l.* if done by the vintner or retail trader.] But both these last-mentioned statutes have now been repealed as obsolete. Also, by the 3 Geo. IV. (1822), c. cvi. and the Bread Act, 1836, special provisions were made against the adulteration of *bread*, *corn*, *meal*, or *flour* (*u*). Enactments with regard to the inspection of meat and other articles of consumption *offered for sale*, and (if need be) for the destruction of what is diseased or unsound or unfit in any way for the food of man, are contained in the Public Health Act, 1875 (*x*), and in the Acts amending that Act referred to in a former volume. And by the Sale of Food and Drugs Act, 1875, which repeals the 23 & 24 Vict. (1860), c. 84, and 35 & 36 Vict. (1872), c. 74, and which is amended by the Sale of Food and Drugs Amendment Act, 1879, and by the Sale of Food and Drugs Act, 1899, it is provided generally (*y*)—First, that no person shall mix, colour,

(*t*) *Cf. Burnby* v. *Bollett* (1847), 16 M. & W. 644.

(*u*) *Jones* v. *Huxtable* (1867), L. R. 2 Q. B. 460; *R.* v. *Wood* (1869), L. R. 4 Q. B. 559; *Robinson* v. *Cliff* (1876), 1 Ex. D. 294; *London County Council* v. *Read*, [1900] 1 Q. B. 288.

(*x*) Sects. 116, 119.

(*y*) *Fitzpatrick* v. *Kelly* (1873), L. R. 8 Q. B. 337; *Lane* v. *Collins* (1884), 14 Q. B. D. 193; *Knight* v. *Bowers* (1885), *ib.* 845; *Kirk* v. *Coates* (1885), 16 Q. B. D. 49; *Spiers and Pond* v. *Bennett*, [1896] 2 Q. B. 65; *Parker* v. *Alder*, [1899] 1 Q. B. 20.

stain, or powder any *article of food* (which includes, for this purpose, drink) (*z*), with any ingredient or material so as to render the article injurious to health, with intent that the same may be sold in that state, and that no person shall knowingly sell such article so adulterated, under a penalty not exceeding 50*l.* for the first offence; and after a previous conviction, every offence is a misdemeanour, punishable with imprisonment and hard labour to the extent of six months; and, Secondly, that no person shall (except for the purpose of compounding, as in the Act provided) mix, colour, stain, or powder any *drug* with any ingredient or material so as to affect injuriously the quality or potency of such drug, with intent that the same may be sold in such state, and no person shall knowingly sell such adulterated drug, under the same penalty as in the preceding case; and, Thirdly, that no person shall (with certain exceptions specified in the Act) sell, to the prejudice of the purchaser, any article of food or drug which is not of the nature substance and quality of the article demanded by such purchaser, under a penalty not exceeding 20*l.* (*a*). As regards substitutes for butter, the Margarine Act, 1887, provides, that all dealers (whether wholesale or retail) in margarine shall sell that article by the name of margarine and not of butter, subject to a penalty of 20*l.* for the first offence, 50*l.* for the second offence, and 100*l.* for the third or any subsequent offence (*b*); and the Act contains regulations for the registration of margarine manufactories. The legislature has also endeavoured, by the Adulteration of Seeds Acts, 1869 and 1878, and the Fertilizers and Feeding Stuffs Act, 1893, to provide (in favour of agriculturists,

(*z*) Sect. 2.

(*a*) *Barnes* v. *Chipp* (1878), 3 Ex. D. 176; *Rook* v. *Hopley* (1878), *id.* 209; *Webb* v. *Knight* (1877), 2 Q. B. D. 530; *Sandys* v. *Small* (1878), 3 Q. B. D. 449; *Mason* v. *Cowdary*, [1900] 2 Q. B. 419.

(*b*) *Buckler* v. *Wilson*, [1896] 1 Q. B. 83; *Moore* v. *Pearce's Dining and Refreshment Rooms, Limited*, [1895] 2 Q. B. 657.

graziers, and the like) some protection against the adulteration of food for cattle, and of seeds and fertilizers; the policy of these Acts being, to require vendors to warrant the purity of the articles sold, and to subject offenders to pecuniary penalties (*e*).

Other species of deceitful practices, contravening the law of honesty generally, have been incidentally noticed in former parts of this work. And our limits will not allow us to pursue the subject in the present place, further than to add the following instance of conduct of this nature which has been made the subject of a specific enactment. For if any person shall personate a master, and give *a false character to a servant;* or assert in writing, contrary to truth, that any servant has been hired for a period of time or in a station, or was discharged at any time, or had not been hired, in any previous service; or if any person shall offer himself or herself as a servant, pretending to have served where he or she has not served, or with a false certificate of character: or shall alter a certificate; or shall (contrary to truth) pretend not to have been in any previous service,—the offenders in any of the above cases, are liable, under the Servants' Characters Act, 1792, on conviction before two justices of the peace, to be fined 20*l*., and (in default) to be imprisoned with hard labour, for any time not more than three months nor less than one calendar month.

XII. [*A Common Nuisance* is also an offence against public convenience and the economical regimen of the state; and it consists in either doing a thing to the annoyance of all the lieges, or in neglecting to do some good which the common welfare requires (*d*). Common nuisances are misdemeanors, and (as distinguished from *private*

(*e*) *Francis* v. *Maas* (1878), 3 Q. B. D. 341.

(*d*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 75, s. 1.

[nuisances) are a grievance to the community at large, not merely to particular persons. Of such common nuisances, we may instance :—

1. Annoyances in *highways* and *bridges*. Now offences affecting *highways* and *bridges* may be committed—as we have had occasion elsewhere to notice—either positively, by actual obstructions, or negatively, by want of reparations.] The negative kind can of course only be committed by those upon whom lies the obligation to repair ; but positive offences, in highways and bridges, consist of a variety of nuisances and other injuries capable of being committed by any person indiscriminately. Some of these are punishable at common law, and others under the express provisions of the Highway, Bridge, and Turnpike Acts. Such nuisances as took the form of unlawful encroachments, were antiently called *purprestures* (*e*).

2. Another common nuisance is the carrying on of any *offensive* or *dangerous trade* or *manufacture* (*f*). Such carrying on, when only occasioning injury to some private individual, may form the subject of an action at his suit ; but when it is detrimental to the public at large, it is a criminal offence punishable by fine and imprisonment. And to support an indictment for such nuisances as these, it is not necessary to prove that they are offensive to health, if they be manifestly offensive to the senses (*g*).

3. So also, *exposing* in a public thoroughfare a *person infected with a contagious disease*, is a common nuisance, and punishable by fine and imprisonment (*h*) ; but against this offence (and others kindred thereto), express statutory provision has now been made, by the Acts relating to the

(*e*) Co. Litt. 277 ; Turnpike Roads Act, 1822 ; Highway Acts, 1835, 1841, 1845, 1862.

(*f*) Steam Engine Furnaces Act, 1821.

(*g*) *R.* v. *Neil* (1826), 2 Car. & P. 485.

(*h*) *R.* v. *Vantandillo* (1815), 4 M. & S. 73.

Public Health which we have referred to in a former volume.

4. [All *disorderly inns* or *other houses* (*k*); *bawdy houses* (*l*), *or brothels* (*m*); *gaming houses*; *play houses unlicensed* or *improperly conducted*; *unlicensed booths and stages for rope dancers and mountebanks* (*n*), and the like, are, either at common law, or by statute, public nuisances; and may, upon indictment, be suppressed, and their keepers fined, and in some cases, imprisoned with hard labour (*o*). Against *gaming houses*, in particular, the efforts of the legislature have been directed with assiduous care. Thus, the statute 33 Hen. VIII. (1541), c. 9, s. 11, prohibited the keeping any common house for dice, cards, or any unlawful games, under pecuniary penalties of 40*s.* for every day of so keeping the house, and 6*s.* 8*d.* for every time of playing therein (*p*). Also, by provisions contained in the Gaming Act, 1710, the Unlawful Games Act, 1728, and the Gaming Acts, 1739 and 1744, a variety of games, including those of faro, basset, ace of hearts, hazard, passage, roly poly, and roulette,—together with all other games played with dice (*q*), with the exception of backgammon,—were expressly prohibited under heavy penalties; and, by the 30 Geo. II. (1757), c. 24, s. 14, gaming in public houses by labourers or servants was specifically forbidden.] And now, by the Gaming Act, 1845, the Betting Act, 1853, the Gaming Houses Act, 1854, and the Betting Act, 1874, further provisions have

(*k*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 78, s. 2; Bull. N. P. 73; *Fell* v. *Knight* (1841), 8 M. & W. 269.

(*l*) Disorderly Houses Acts, 1751 and 1818; Music and Dancing Licenses (Middlesex) Act, 1894.

(*m*) Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885, Part II.

(*n*) Bac. Ab. tit. *Nuisance*.

(*o*) Hard Labour Act, 1822.

(*p*) *Murphy* v. *Arrow*, [1897] 2 Q. B. 527; *R.* v. *Davies*, [1897] 2 Q. B. 199.

(*q*) *Bentinck* v. *Connop* (1844), 5 Q. B. 693; *Daintree* v. *Hutchinson* (1842), 10 M. & W. 85; *Applegarth* v. *Colley* (1842), *ib.* 723; *Foot* v. *Baker* (1843), 5 Man. & G. 335.

been made with reference to the offence now under consideration ; and in particular for the punishment of those who keep or frequent *common gaming houses* (*r*), and for the suppression of such houses, and of betting houses, where discovered to exist. By these statutes, it is (among other things) provided, that the owner or keeper of any common gaming house, and every person having the care or management thereof, and every banker, croupier, and other person in any manner conducting the business of any such house, shall, on conviction by the oath of one witness before two justices of the peace, be liable, in addition to the penalties of the 33 Hen. VIII. (1541), c. 9, to pay such penalty (not being more than 500*l.*) as shall be adjudged by such justices, or (in the discretion of the justices), to be committed to the house of correction, with or without hard labour, for not more than twelve calendar months (*s*). But any person who, having been concerned in unlawful gaming, shall, on being examined as a witness touching such unlawful gaming, make true discovery thereof to the best of his knowledge, shall be entitled to receive a certificate of his having done so, and shall be thereupon freed from all criminal prosecutions, forfeitures, and disabilities for anything he has himself done in respect of such unlawful gaming (*t*) ; while, on the other hand, any person found in a suspected gaming place, may be *required* to be examined and to give evidence, touching any unlawful gaming therein or touching any obstructions to the entry (*u*), and shall not be excused from being examined or from answering any question touching such matters, on the ground that his evidence will tend to criminate himself (*v*). The Gaming Act. 1845,

(*r*) *Shaw* v. *Morley* (1868), L. R. 3 Exch. 137 ; *Jenks* v. *Turpin* (1884), 13 Q. B. D. 505 ; *Snow* v. *Hill* (1885), 14 Q. B. D. 588 ; *R.* v. *Davies*, [1897] 2 Q. B. 199 ; *Powell* v. *Kempton Park Racecourse Co.*, [1899] A.C. 143.

(*s*) Gaming Act, 1845, s. 4 ; Gaming Houses Act, 1854, s. 4.

(*t*) Gaming Act, 1845, s. 9.

(*u*) *Ibid.* ; Gaming Houses Act, 1854, ss. 5, 6.

(*v*) Gaming Houses Act, 1854, s. 5.

contains also provisions, previously referred to (*x*), that a person who shall by any fraud, unlawful device, or ill practice, in play, betting, or wagering, at any game, win any sum of money or valuable thing, shall be deemed guilty of obtaining the same by a *false pretence*, and be punished accordingly (*y*); that all contracts, (whether by parol or in writing,) by way of gaming or wagering, shall be null and void (*z*); and that no action shall be brought to recover any money or valuable thing alleged to be won on any wager, or which was *deposited* in the hands of any person to abide the event on which any wager shall have been made (*a*). But the enactment is not to apply to any subscription towards a plate or prize at any "lawful" game, sport, pastime, or exercise (*b*); horse-racing being a lawful game, unless where the race-course, being within a radius of ten miles from Charing Cross, is not duly licensed under the Racecourses Licensing Act, 1879 (*b*). The Gaming Act, 1845, has also been rendered more stringent (as to betting) by the Gaming Act, 1892, and (so far as regards the protection of infants) by the Betting and Loans (Infants) Act, 1892. Finally, by the Vagrant Act Amendment Act, 1873, s. 3, every person playing or betting, by way of wagering or gaming, *in any street, road, highway*, or *other open and public place*, or in any open place to which the public have access (*c*), at or with

(*x*) *Supra*, vol. II., pp. 78—9.

(*y*) Gaming Act, 1845, s. 17.

(*z*) Sect. 18; *Rosewarne* v. *Billing* (1863), 15 C. B. (N.S.) 316; *Babb* v. *Yelverton* (1870), L. R. 9 Eq. 471; *Beeston* v. *Beeston* (1875), 1 Ex. D. 13; *Ex parte Pyke*, *In re Lister* (1878), 8 Ch. D 754; *Strachan* v. *Universal Stock Exchange* (No. 2), [1895] 2 Q. B. 697.

(*a*) *Varney* v. *Hickman* (1847), 5 C. B. 271; *Hampden* v. *Walsh* (1876), 1 Q. B. D. 189; *O'Sullivan* v. *Thomas*, [1895] 1 Q. B. 698; *Burge* v. *Ashley*, [1900] 1 Q. B. 744.

(*b*) See as to *bets* on horse-racing, *Read* v. *Anderson* (1884), 13 Q. B. D. 779; *Bridger* v. *Savage* (1885), 15 Q. B. D. 363; as to *betting advertisements*, *Cox* v. *Andrews* (1883), 12 Q. B. D. 126; as to *a coursing match*, *Daintree* v. *Hutchinson* (1842), 10 M. & W. 85; and as to *a foot race*, *Batty* v. *Marriott* (1848), 5 C. B. 818.

(*c*) *Hirst* v. *Molesbury* (1870), L. R. 6 Q. B. 130; *Langrish* v. *Archer* (1882), 10 Q. B. D. 44.

any table or instrument of gaming, or any card, coin, token, or other article used as an instrument of wagering, at any game or pretended game of chance, is to be deemed *a rogue and vagabond* within the meaning of the Vagrancy Act (*d*), and is liable to be convicted and punished accordingly, or else (at the discretion of the justices trying the case) may be adjudged to pay a penalty, not exceeding forty shillings for the first offence, or five pounds for any subsequent one.

5. *Disorderly conduct in public libraries*, and betting or gambling therein, are also nuisances, and fineable (*e*).

6. By the 10 Will. III. (1698), c. 23, and by the Gaming Act, 1802, all *lotteries* are declared to be public nuisances, and all grants, patents, or licences for the same, to be contrary to law (*f*); and, by the Gaming Acts, 1738, 1739, and 1744, all private lotteries by tickets, cards, or dice, are specifically prohibited. But, by the Art Unions Act, 1846, *art unions* for the disposal of pictures, &c., by means of prizes, were rendered lawful. State lotteries were from time to time authorized by successive Acts of Parliament, the last of which was the Lotteries Act, 1823; since which date this method of raising money for the public service has been discontinued.

7. To this head of a public nuisance at common law, we may also refer the *making, keeping, or carrying* too large a quantity of *gunpowder*, at one time, or in one place or vehicle (*g*); and of *using any mill* or *engine* for making gunpowder, except in a place duly licensed. All these and the like practices are also prohibited *by statute*, under heavy penalties and forfeitures (*h*). The Act also requires

(*d*) *Vide post*, p. 218.

(*e*) Libraries Offences Act, 1898.

(*f*) *Taylor* v. *Smetten* (1883), 11 Q. B. D. 207; *Barclay* v. *Pearson*, [1893] 2 Ch. 154; *Stoddart* v. *Sagar*, [1895] 2 Q. B. 474; *Hall* v. *Cox*, [1899] 1 Q. B. 198.

(*g*) *Williams* v. *East India Company* (1802), 3 East, 192; *R.* v. *Matters* (1818), 1 B. & Ald. 362; *R.* v. *Moore* (1832), 3 B. & Ad. 184.

(*h*) Explosives Act, 1875; *Beck* v. *Stringer* (1871), L. R. 6 Q. B. 497; *Eliott* v. *Majendie* (1872), L. R. 7 Q. B. 429.

the manufacture of all *fireworks*, and of other preparations or compositions of an explosive nature, to be carried on in licensed places; and, moreover, prohibits under a penalty, the sale of fireworks by persons unlicensed, and the sale of gunpowder to any person apparently under the age of thirteen (*i*). The *stowage* of *petroleum* and other explosive oils has been specifically regulated by the Petroleum Acts, 1871, 1879, and 1881; and the storage and carriage of explosive substances generally (inclusive of *gunpowder* and *nitro-glycerine*) by the Explosives Act, 1875, amended by the Explosive Substances Act, 1883, s. 8.

8. *Giving* (or procuring to be given) to any fire-brigade *a false alarm*, is also a nuisance, and fineable (*k*); this provision not, however, applying within the metropolitan area.

[9. *Eaves-dropping*, or the offence committed by such as loiter under walls or windows, or the eaves of houses, to hearken after discourse, and thereupon to frame slanderous and mischievous tales, is also instanced in the books as a common nuisance; and the offenders are said to be indictable at sessions, and liable to be fined and bound over to their good behaviour.

10. Lastly, we may enumerate among nuisances noticed in our law, though in practice it has long ceased to be the subject of prosecution, that of being a *common scold*. For which indictable offence, the *communis rixatrix*, (for our law confines it to the feminine gender,) might be sentenced to be placed in a certain engine of correction called the trebucket, castigatory, or *cucking* stool, which in the Saxon language is said to signify the scolding stool; though now it is frequently corrupted into *ducking* stool, because the residue of the judgment ran that, when so placed therein, she should be plunged in the water for her punishment (*l*)].

(*i*) Explosives Act, 1875, s. 31.
(*k*) False Alarms of Fire Act, 1895.
(*l*) Hawk P. C. b. 1, c. 75, s. 5; 3 Inst. 219.

Such is the general state of the law, with respect to common nuisances; but it is material to observe here generally, that, as to all those species of them which tend to affect the *public health*, they have been of late very specially provided against by the several Acts which have been passed for improving the sanitary condition of the people, of which we gave some account in a preceding volume, while the laws relating to this subject were under discussion. By the provisions of these Acts, a great variety of nuisances are specified and prohibited; in some instances, as misdemeanors, and in others, as offences subject to pecuniary penalties recoverable before a court of summary jurisdiction.

XIII. [*Lewdness* is also an offence not merely against morality, but also against public convenience. It consists, for legal purposes, in frequenting houses of ill-fame, which is an indictable offence, or in some grossly scandalous and public indecency, for which the punishment is fine and imprisonment. In the year 1650, under the *regime* of Cromwell, not only incest and wilful adultery were made capital crimes; but also the repeated act of keeping a brothel, and committing fornication were (upon a second conviction) made felony without benefit of clergy (*m*). But at the Restoration, and principally from an abhorrence of the hypocrisy of the late times, men fell into a contrary extreme of licentiousness, and it was not thought proper to renew a law of such rigour. And these offences have ever since been left to the feeble coercion of the spiritual court, according to the rules of the canon law: a law which has treated the offence of incontinence, as also that of adultery, with a great degree of tenderness and lenity.]

Another species of lewdness is any public and indecent exposure of the person, also, the public selling or exposure for public sale, or to public view, of any obscene book, print, picture, or other indecent exhibition; the punish-

(*m*) Scob. 121.

ment being fine or imprisonment, or both, with hard labour at the discretion of the court (*n*). Moreover, in aid of the suppression of such practices, it has been provided, by the Obscene Publications Act, 1857, that on complaint made, on oath, before any metropolitan or stipendiary magistrate, or two justices, that obscene books, papers, writings, prints, pictures, drawings, or other similar representations, are kept in some place for the purpose of being sold, distributed, exhibited, lent on hire, or otherwise published, for *gain*; with an allegation that one or more articles of the like character have been published at or in connection with such place, so as to satisfy the justices that such belief of the complainant is well founded, such justices may (on being satisfied that any articles so kept are of such a character and description that the publication of them would be a misdemeanor, and proper to be prosecuted as such) issue a special warrant, authorizing an entry of the place specified in the complaint, in the day-time, by the police, and by force if necessary. And the justices are also enabled to order the seizure and destruction (if the owner does not show good cause to the contrary) of the articles in question. And somewhat similar but more effective provisions have also now been made for the suppression of indecent advertisements, whether posted up in the streets or in other public places, or exhibited in shop windows, or thrown down areas (*o*); and any constable or other peace officer may arrest, without warrant, any one whom he finds committing an offence against the Act (*p*). The Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885, which, as we have seen (*q*), provides very effectively against the offence of procuration, and for the

(*n*) Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, s. 29; *R.* v. *Bradlaugh and Besant* (1877), 2 Q. B. D. 569; (1878), 3 Q. B. D. 607. In consequence of this decision, s. 7 of the Law of Libel Amendment Act, 1888, was enacted.

(*o*) Indecent Advertisements Act, 1889.

(*p*) *Ibid.* s. 6.

(*q*) *Supra*, pp. 71, 72.

punishment of divers offences against female chastity, provides also for the suppression of brothels (s. 13), visiting the lessees, owners, and occupiers thereof with pecuniary penalties, and providing facilities for females detained therein escaping (s. 8), or being rescued (s. 10), therefrom ; and the injured female, if under sixteen years, may be taken out of the custody of her parent or other guardian, and be committed to the charge of any philanthropic and virtuous person (s. 12). Finally, by the Vagrancy Act, 1898, any male person, who shall be found living upon wages earned by prostitution, may be proceeded against as a vagrant.

XIV. The offence of *Drunkenness* is also an offence against public morals and convenience, and was punished, by the 4 Jac. I. (1606) c. 5, and 21 Jac. I. (1623) c. 7, section 3, with the forfeiture of five shillings, to be paid within one week after conviction, to the churchwardens, for the use of the poor ; and upon a second conviction, the offender might be bound with two sureties in 10*l.* for his good behaviour. If the drunkenness be accompanied with any riotous or indecent behaviour, committed in the street of any town within the police provisions of the Town Police Clauses Act, 1847, the offence, by the 29th section of that Act, is punishable with a penalty not exceeding forty shillings, or seven days' imprisonment (*r*). Moreover, by the Licensing Act, 1872, s. 12, every person found drunk in any highway or other public place, whether a building or not, or on any licensed premises, is made liable to a penalty not exceeding ten shillings (*s*), and on a second conviction within twelve months, twenty shillings, and on a third or subsequent conviction within such period, forty shillings. If the drunkenness be accompanied with riotous or disorderly behaviour, or if the offender is in charge of

(*r*) *Martin* v. *Pridgeon* (1859), 1 El. & El. 778.

(*s*) *Lester* v. *Torrens* (1877), 2 Q. B. D. 403 ; *R.* v. *Pelly*, [1897] 2 Q. B. 33.

a carriage, horse, cattle, or steam engine, or of a child under seven years of age (*t*), or is in the possession of loaded firearms, the penalty is a fine not exceeding forty shillings; or imprisonment for any term not exceeding one month, with or without hard labour, may be imposed (*u*). Also, under the Inebriates Act, 1898, section 1, a convicted criminal, whose offence was occasioned through his drunkenness, and who is an habitual drunkard, may be detained for any period not exceeding three years in a state inebriate reformatory; and (by s. 2) a drunkard four times convicted may likewise be detained in a certified inebriate reformatory. Under the Licensing Act, 1872, section 13, a publican, who (1) permits drunkenness to take place on his premises (*x*), or (2) sells any drink to a person already drunk, is guilty of an offence under that Act (*y*). And, by section 4 of the Licensing Act, 1902, a publican who is charged with permitting drunkenness on his premises, and against whom it is proved that a drunken person was in fact on his premises, has cast upon him the burden of disproving the presumption, that he "permitted" such drunkenness.

XV. Another indictable offence of the same class is *Wanton and Furious Driving;* as to which, it is declared, by the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, section 35, that if any person, having the charge of any carriage or vehicle, shall, by wanton or furious driving or racing, or other wilful misconduct or neglect, do or cause to be done any bodily harm to any person whatever, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and may be imprisoned with or without hard labour to the extent of two years. This statute, in declaring that such conduct shall amount to a misdemeanor,

(*t*) Licensing Act, 1902, s. 2.

(*u*) As to the offence of drunkenness, when committed by a person subject to military law, see the Army Act, 1881, s. 19; and when committed by a person subject to the Naval Discipline Act, 1866, see s. 27 of that Act.

(*x*) *Somerset* v. *Wade*, [1894] 1 Q. B. 574; *Hope* v. *Warburton*, [1892] 2 Q. B. 134.

(*y*) *Commissioners of Police* v. *Cartman*, [1896] 1 Q. B. 655.

is declaratory only of the common law; according to which, it is a misdemeanor, and may even amount to manslaughter or murder, for any person to drive or ride so wantonly and furiously, as to endanger the passengers on the highway (*z*).

XVI. A seventh offence is that of *Cruelty to Animals*.—And it has been, in the first place, enacted generally, by the Cruelty to Animals Act, 1849, that if any person shall cruelly beat, ill-treat, over-drive, abuse, or torture any horse, mare, gelding, bull, ox, cow, heifer, steer, calf, mule, ass, sheep, lamb, hog, pig, sow, goat, dog, cat, or any other "domestic animal" (*a*), or if he shall have counselled any such act of cruelty (*b*), he shall forfeit a sum not exceeding 5*l*. for every such offence, recoverable before a justice of the peace in a summary way. If, by any such misconduct, he shall injure the animal, or any person or property, a further penalty not exceeding 10*l*. to the owner or person injured, may be imposed. The Act inflicts penalties, in the case of conveying any such animal from one place to another in such a manner or position, as to subject it to unnecessary pain or suffering, and for the offences of bull-baiting, cock-fighting, and the like (*c*); and it contains a variety of humane provisions for the regulation of the business of slaughtering horses, and of cattle not intended for butcher's meat (*d*). It will be observed, that the Cruelty to Animals Act, 1849, refers only to "domestic animals," and this phrase has been held not to cover wild rabbits captured for coursing (*e*), caged lions (*f*), or a

(*z*) Fost. 263; *R.* v. *Mastin* (1834), 6 Car. & P. 396; *R.* v. *Taylor* (1840), 9 Car. & P. 672.

(*a*) See *Murphy* v. *Manning* (1877), 2 Ex. D. 307 (as to cutting the *combs of cocks*); *Ford* v. *Wiley* (1889), 23 Q. B. D. 203 (as to *dishorning cattle*); *Benford* v. *Sims*, [1898] 2 Q. B. 641 (as to *over-driving*).

(*b*) *Benford* v. *Sims*, *sup.*

(*c*) *Morley* v. *Greenhalgh* (1863), 3 B. & S. 374; *Clark* v. *Hague* (1859), 2 El. & El. 281.

(*d*) Cruelty to Animals Act, 1849, s. 9; *Colam* v. *Hall* (1871), L. R. 6 Q. B. 206.

(*e*) *Aplin* v. *Porritt*, [1893] 2 Q. B. 57.

(*f*) *Harper* v. *Marcks*, [1894] 2 Q. B. 319.

tame seagull (*g*). But cases of cruelty to wild animals in captivity may now be dealt with under the Wild Animals in Captivity Protection Act, 1900. By the Cruelty to Animals Act, 1854, the cruelty occasioned by the neglect to provide impounded animals with food and water has been checked ; and the cruelty of using dogs as *draught* animals has been prohibited. As regards animals which, for medical, physiological, or other scientific purposes, are subjected, when alive, to experiments calculated to inflict pain, the Cruelty to Animals Act, 1876, has provided, that a person shall not, under a heavy penalty, perform on a living animal any experiment calculated to give pain, except subject to the restrictions imposed by the Act, that is to say (amongst others of greater detail, for which we must refer the reader to the statute itself), unless the operator shall hold a licence from the secretary of state. Such licence is only to be obtained, on an application signed by one or more of the Presidents of the Royal Society, of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, of the Royal Irish Academy, of one of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons or Physicians, of the General Medical Council, of the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow, or (in respect of veterinary experiments) of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons, or of the Royal Veterinary College, London. Moreover, the operation must be performed with a view to the advancement, by new discovery, of physiological knowledge, or of knowledge which will be useful for saving or prolonging life, or alleviating suffering, and not merely (unless after obtaining such special certificate as in the Act mentioned) as an illustration of lectures, or for the purpose of attaining manual skill. As a general rule, the animal must (during the operation) be under the influence of some anæsthetic of sufficient power to prevent it from feeling pain. There are also other and specific directions touching operations performed on dogs,

(*g*) *Yates* v *Higgins*, [1896] 1 Q. B. 166.

cats, horses, asses, and mules ; and it is in all cases illegal to admit the general public to witness the experiment. Horses, mules, and donkeys, fatally injured, may now be summarily slaughtered by the police (*h*).

XVII. *Cruelty to children* is also an offence against morals and public convenience, of a character somewhat cognate to the lastly-mentioned offence. And, in addition to the provisions for the protection of infant life contained in the Infant Life Protection Act, 1897, referred to in a former page (*i*), it is provided, by the Children's Dangerous Performances Act, 1879, that children under the age of fourteen years shall not take part in any performance which is dangerous to life or limb ; and by the Dangerous Performances Act, 1897, the age limit of fourteen years has been raised, to sixteen years in the case of males and to eighteen years in the case of females. But the prosecution for any offence under the Act requires first to receive the consent in writing of the chief police officer. Also, by the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1894, repealing the Prevention of Cruelty to, and Protection of, Children Act, 1889, very effectual provision has now been made for the protection of children from cruelty. The Act provides, that an assault on, or the wilful ill-treatment, neglect, abandonment, or exposure of, a boy or girl under the age of sixteen years, in a manner likely to cause the child unnecessary suffering, or to injure his or her health, shall be a misdemeanor, punishable with fine or imprisonment, or with both (*k*). And the offender (although the parent or step-parent) may be prosecuted, either on indictment or summarily under the Summary Jurisdiction Acts ; while the fine, which, as a general rule, is not to exceed 100*l.* in the case of conviction on an indictment, and 25*l.* in the case of conviction on a summary prosecution, may be increased to 200*l.*, if

(*h*) Injured Animals Act, 1894, (*k*) Sect. 1.
(*i*) *Sup.* pp. 79, 80.

the offender was interested in any sum of money accruing on the death of the child (*l*). And as regards any child who (being a boy) is under fourteen, or (being a girl) is under sixteen years of age, it is also an offence under the Act, and punishable with fine or imprisonment or both, to put the child into, or to permit the child to be in, the streets, or upon any premises, for the purpose of begging or receiving alms ; or to put (between the hours of 9 p.m. and 6 a.m.) the child into the streets, or upon any premises or in public-houses, for singing, playing, or performing for profit, or for offering anything for sale (*m*). It is, under the same statute, an offence punishable with fine and imprisonment, to procure any child under the age of eleven years to be *at any time* in the streets, or upon any premises licensed for the sale of intoxicating liquors, or for public entertainments, or in circuses, or places of public amusement, for the purpose of singing, playing, or performing for profit, or for offering anything for sale (*n*) ; but any such child (if not under the age of seven years) may, under the licence in that behalf of a petty sessional court, to be granted subject to conditions for the child's well-being, be permitted to play or perform upon premises licensed for public entertainments, or in circuses, or places of public amusement. For the more effective execution of these provisions of the Act, an inspector of factories may be deputed to see that the conditions of the licence are observed (*o*). Also, a constable may take into custody without warrant any offender (or person reasonably suspected as an offender) within his view, whose name and residence are unknown to him (*p*) ; and may take to a place of safety the child in respect of whom the offence has been, or is reasonably suspected to have been, committed (*q*). On conviction of the offender, the child

(*l*) Sect. 1, sub-s. 3 ; *R.* v. *Senior*, [1899] 1 Q. B. 283.
(*m*) Sect. 2 sub-ss. (a), (b).
(*n*) Sect. 2, sub-s. (*c*).
(*o*) Sect. 3.
(*p*) Sect. 4.
(*q*) Sect. 5.

may, under an order of a petty sessional court, be committed to some proper guardianship (*r*). Also, on a sworn information before any stipendiary magistrate or any two justices of the peace, of reasonable cause for suspecting that a child is ill-treated within the meaning of the Act, a warrant may issue authorizing the applicant to search for the child and to take it to, and detain it in, some place of safety; and such person may enter, and (if necessary) forcibly enter, upon or into any premises and remove the child therefrom, to be afterwards dealt with by a petty sessional court (*s*). The Act also provides that children of tender years, if they appear to be sufficiently intelligent, may, although not appearing to understand the nature of an oath, give evidence without oath, subject to the rule, that the child's evidence must be corroborated in some material particular; and the child's deposition even may, in urgent cases, be taken by a justice of the peace, and used against the offender (*t*). But every offence against the Act must be prosecuted within six calendar months; and the offender, if convicted before a court of summary jurisdiction, may appeal to the Court of Quarter Sessions (*u*).

XVIII. *Taking up dead bodies* from the places where they have been interred, for the purpose of dissection or otherwise, is also a misdemeanor at common law, and punishable with fine and imprisonment (*x*). And under this head, may also be noticed the offence of *refusing to bury dead bodies* by those whose duty it is to do so, which offence appears to be punishable by the temporal courts, (independently of ecclesiastical censures), on indictment or information (*y*).

(*r*) Sect. 6, sub-s. 1.
(*s*) Sect. 10.
(*t*) Sects. 13, 15.
(*u*) Sects. 18, 19.
(*x*) Arch. *Cr. Pr.* 1143; *R.* v. *Lynn* (1788), 2 T. R. 733; *R.* v. *Sharpe* (1857), 26 L. J. M. C. 47; Anatomy Act, 1832. *Cf. R.* v. *Tristram*, [1898] 2 Q. B. 371.
(*y*) *Kemp* v. *Wickes* (1809), 3 Phillim. 264.

XIX. *Refusing to Serve a Public Office* (such as that of constable or overseer), without lawful excuse or exemption, is also a misdemeanor at common law, punishable with fine and imprisonment (*z*).

XX. Lastly, under the general head of *Vagrancy and other Disorderly Conduct*, may be classed a variety of offences against the public economy. The civil law expelled all sturdy vagrants from the city; and, in our own law, idle persons and vagabonds, whom our antient statutes describe to be "such as wake on the night and "sleep on the day, and haunt customable taverns and ale-"houses, and rout about; and no man wot from whence "they come, ne whither they go," are more particularly described by the Vagrancy Act, 1824, and are there divided into three classes, namely, *idle* and *disorderly* persons, *rogues* and *vagabonds*, and *incorrigible rogues*. By numerous other statutes, particular offenders are to be deemed rogues and vagabonds within this statute of 1824 (*a*), as has frequently been pointed out in our exposition of particular offences, the latest case of the kind being that under the Vagrancy Act, 1898, referred to in a previous page (*b*). By the Vagrancy Act, 1824, all these classes of persons are offenders against the good order, and blemishes in the government, of any kingdom, and they may be proceeded against under the 4th section of the statute, and, if convicted, may be punished as follows; that is to say,—"idle and disorderly persons," with one month's imprisonment, and hard labour; "rogues and vagabonds," with three months' imprisonment, and hard labour; while "incorrigible rogues" may be committed to the next sessions of the peace, and kept

(*z*) Arch. *Cr. Pr.* 1181; *R.* v. *Poynder* (1823), 1 B. & C. 178; *R.* v. *Bower* (1823), *ib.* 585.

(*a*) Vagrancy Act, 1838; Poor Law Amendment Act, 1866, s. 15; Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, s. 15; Vagrant Act Amendment Act, 1873.

(*b*) *Sup.* p. 211.

to hard labour in the interim, and, if convicted at the sessions, may be further punished with imprisonment and hard labour for one year, and with whipping, except in the case of females. Moreover, a right of search is given by the Act, into houses for the reception of so-called travellers (*c*).

And here we will observe, that *idle soldiers* and *marines* wandering the country, who (under the 39 Eliz. (1597), c. 17) were to be treated as *ipso facto* felons, are now liable to be treated as vagrants only. [And with regard to those "*outlandish persons calling themselves Ægyptians or Gypsies*," by the 1 & 2 Ph. & M. (1554), c. 4, and 5 Eliz. (1562), c. 20, if the gypsies themselves, or any person, being fourteen years old, who had been seen or found in their fellowship, or had disguised himself like them, remained in this kingdom one month, it was felony; and it is said that, at one Suffolk assizes, no less than thirteen gypsies were executed upon these statutes (*d*), which, however, have now been repealed (*e*). These persons were a strange kind of commonwealth among themselves, of wandering impostors and jugglers, who were first taken notice of in Germany about the beginning of the fifteenth century. Pope Pius the second (who died A.D. 1464) mentions them in his history as thieves and vagabonds, then wandering with their families over Europe under the name of Zigari; and they gained such a number of idle proselytes, that they became troublesome, and even formidable, to most of the states of Europe, wherefore they were expelled from France in the year 1560, and from Spain in 1591. And in our own country, they are spoken of as early as the year 1530, in the statute of 22 Hen. VIII., c. 10, as "outlandish "people, using no craft nor feat of merchandize, who

(*c*) Vagrancy Act, 1824, s. 13; Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, ss. 15, 16.

(*d*) 1 Hale, P. C. 471.

(*e*) 23 Geo. 3 (1783), c. 51; 19 & 20 Vict. (1856), c. 64.

[" have come into this realm and gone from shire to shire, " and place to place, in great company, and used great, " subtle, and crafty means to deceive the people, bearing " them in hand, that they by palmistry could tell men and " women's fortunes ; and so many times, by craft and " subtilty, have deceived the people of their money, and " and have also committed many heinous felonies and " robberies."] All such persons are now, under the Vagrancy Act, 1824, in danger of being at any time committed as vagrants, or as rogues and vagabonds ; although, in fact, they habitually receive with us a curiously indulgent treatment.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF OFFENCES AFFECTING THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.

We are now arrived at the consideration of,—

(C.) Offences affecting the administration of justice; and the first of them which we shall mention is :—

I. *The Stealing, Injuring, Forging, or Falsifying any Public Record.*—This is a high offence; for no man's property would be safe, if records might be suppressed or falsified, or persons' names be falsely usurped in courts. Specific provision regarding it has, accordingly, been made by the Larceny Act, 1861, section 30, whereby it is a felony, and punishable with penal servitude to the extent of five years, or imprisonment for not more than two years, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement. The offence, as described by the statute, consists in stealing, or fraudulently taking from its proper place of deposit or custody, or maliciously cancelling, obliterating, injuring, or destroying, any record, writ, return, panel, process, interrogatory, deposition, affidavit, rule, order, or warrant of attorney, or any original document whatever, belonging to any court of record or of equity, or relating to any matter in such court. And the *forgery* or *falsification* of records is also provided against by the Forgery Act, 1861, ss. 27, 28, whereby it is now made a felony punishable by imprisonment as above mentioned, or penal servitude to the extent of seven years, to forge, or fraudulently to alter or utter, any such court record or document as above specified;

and the above penalties attach to any person who, as clerk of any court or otherwise, knowingly utters any false copy or certificate of any record, or forges the seal or process of any court of record. The Public Record Office Act, 1838, which has been since diversely amended (*b*), contains also this enactment, namely, that any person employed in the Public Record Office who shall certify any writing as a true copy of a record in the custody of the Master of the Rolls, knowing the same to be false in any material part, shall be guilty of felony, and punishable with penal servitude for life, or not less than five (now three) years, or with imprisonment for not more than two years (*c*). Moreover, by the Evidence Act, 1851, if any officer authorized or required by that Act to furnish any certified copies or extracts, shall wilfully certify any document as being a true copy or extract, knowing that the same is not so, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and be liable upon conviction to imprisonment for any term not exceeding eighteen months (*d*). Also, by the Conveyancing Act, 1882 (*e*), if any clerk in the Central Office of the Royal Courts of Justice commits any fraud, or is guilty of any wilful negligence, in the making of, or otherwise in relation to, any certificate, or office-copy thereof, of the result of the searches for judgments, &c., thereby authorized, he is declared guilty of a misdemeanor. And, under the Yorkshire Registries Act, 1884 (*f*), if the registrar, or other subordinate officer employed in the register office, is guilty of any fraud in relation to the registration of any document, or the giving of any certificate, or in making any copy or extract or any search, he is declared guilty of a misdemeanor, and is made liable to imprisonment, with

(*b*) Public Record Office Act, 1877.
(*c*) Public Record Office Act, 1838, s. 19; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1.
(*d*) Sect. 15.
(*e*) Sect. 2.
(*f*) Sect. 46.

or without hard labour, for any period not exceeding two years. Finally, by the Lands Charges Registration and Searches Act, 1888 (*g*), relative to the registration of writs and orders affecting land, and of land charges, &c., and providing for searches and for official certificates of the result of searches, the provisions in the like behalf contained in the Conveyancing Act, 1882, above referred to, are made applicable to any offence under the later Act; and there are similar provisions in the Land Transfer Acts, 1875 and 1897, relative to the proceedings in the Land Registry.

II. [*Any Striking or other Outrage in the Superior Courts of Justice*, in Westminster Hall, or at the assizes, is highly penal. Indeed, by the antient common law before the Conquest, striking in the king's courts of justice, or drawing a sword therein, was a capital felony (*h*); and even afterwards the law retained so much of its antient severity, as only to exchange the loss of life for the loss of the offending limb. Therefore, a stroke or blow in the superior courts, or courts of assize, or of *oyer* and *terminer*, whether blood be drawn or not, or assaulting a judge sitting in the court by drawing a weapon, even without any blow struck, was punishable with the loss of the right hand, imprisonment for life, and forfeiture of goods and chattels, and of the profits of the offender's lands during life (*i*); but the *rescue* of a prisoner *in facie curiæ*, without any actual blow being given, was not punishable with such amputation, but only with the other punishments before mentioned. Moreover, not such only as commit actual violence of this description, but such also as use threatening or reproachful words to any judge sitting in the courts, are guilty of a high misprision, and have been punished

(*g*) Sect. 17.

(*h*) Wilk. *Leg. Ang.-Sax. LL. Ine*, c. 6; *LL. Canut.* c. 56; *LL. Alured*, c. 7.

(*i*) Staundf. P. C. 38; 3 Inst. 140, 141; Hawk. b. 1, c. 21, s. 3; 37 St. Tr. 821.

[with large fines, and with imprisonment and other corporal punishments (*k*) ;] and the court may itself punish these offences in a summary way (*l*). A cognate crime is that of commenting on a pending case so as to prejudice its impartial trial. This, like every act which is calculated to interfere with the course of justice, is a misdemeanor at common law, punishable by fine and imprisonment ; and it may also be dealt with as contempt of court (*m*).

III. [Another species of offence is that of *Intimidation, or other improper Demeanour, practised towards the Parties or Witnesses in a Court of Justice.*—As if a man assaults or threatens his adversary for suing him, a counsellor or attorney for being employed against him, a juror for his verdict, or a gaoler or other ministerial officer for keeping him in custody and properly executing his duty (*n*), or if a man endeavours to dissuade a witness from giving evidence, or advises a prisoner to stand mute, these are all impediments to justice, are high misprisions and contempts of the king's courts, and are punishable with fine and imprisonment. And, by the Witnesses (Public Inquiries) Protection Act, 1892, witnesses are also now protected against being obstructed or intimidated when giving evidence on any public inquiry, the offence being made a misdemeanor punishable with fine or imprisonment.

Antiently, also, it was held, that if one of the grand jury disclosed to any person indicted the evidence that appeared against him, he was thereby made an accessory to the offence, if it were felony, and if it were treason, a principal ; and at this day, it is agreed, that he is guilty of a high misprision, and liable to be fined and imprisoned (*o*).

(*k*) *R.* v. *Gray*, [1900] 2 Q. B. 36.

(*l*) *Pollard's Case* (1868), L. R. 2 P. C. 106 ; *Macleod* v. *St. Aubyn*, [1899] A. C. 549.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Tibbets and Windust*, [1902] 1 K. B. 77.

(*n*) 3 Inst. 141, 142 ; Stiernh. *de Jure Sueon.* I, 3, c. 2.

(*o*) 27 Ass. pl. 44, s. 4, fol. 138 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 21, s. 15.

So as regards jurors, an offence somewhat of the same character as the last may be committed, which is described in the books as EMBRACERY, that is, attempting to influence the jurors corruptly to one side, by promises, persuasions, entreaties, money, entertainments, and the like. The punishment for this misdemeanor in the person embracing and in the juror embraced is, by the common law, and also under the provision contained in the Juries Act, 1825, section 61, fine and imprisonment (*p*).

IV. A fourth offence which may be here noticed, is that of *Obstructing a Lawful Arrest, or, generally, the Execution of Lawful Process.*—[This is, in all cases, an offence of a very high and presumptuous nature: but more particularly so, when it is an obstruction of an arrest upon criminal process. And it hath been holden, that the party opposing such arrest, becomes thereby *particeps criminis*, that is, an accessory in felony, and a principal in treason (*q*). Formerly, one of the greatest obstructions to public justice, both of the civil and criminal kind, was the multitude of pretended privileged places (especially in London and Southwark), where indigent persons assembled together to shelter themselves from justice, under the pretext of their having been antient palaces of the crown, or the like (*r*). But all of these sanctuaries for iniquity are now demolished; and the opposing of legal process therein was made highly penal by the statutes 8 & 9 Will. III. (1696), c. 27, 9 Geo. I. (1722), c. 28, 11 Geo. I. (1724), c. 22, and 1 Geo. IV. (1820), c. 116,—which enact, that persons opposing the execution of any process in such pretended privileged places within the bills of mortality, or abusing any officer in his endeavour to

(*p*) The false verdict of jurors, whether occasioned by embracery or not, was antiently considered as criminal; and therefore severely punished by means of the writ of *attaint*. (See Juries Act, 1825, s. 60.)

(*q*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 17, s. 1.

(*r*) Such as *White Friars* and its environs; the *Savoy;* and the *Mint*, in Southwark.

[execute his duty therein, so that he receives bodily hurt, and all persons aiding and abetting such opposition, shall be guilty of felony.] The principal provisions, however, as regards the offence now under consideration, are contained in more recent enactments, and, particularly, in the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, sections 18 and 39. Under the first of these two sections, the offence will, as we had occasion to mention in a former place, amount in certain cases to a crime of the same malignity as an attempt to murder (*s*); and by the second of the two sections, whoever shall assault, resist, or wilfully obstruct any peace officer in the due execution of his duty, or any person acting in his aid, or shall assault any person with intent to resist or prevent his own lawful apprehension or detainer, or that of any one else, for any offence, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be punishable with imprisonment to the extent of two years, with or without hard labour. Moreover, the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, makes every assault on a constable, while in the execution of his duty as such, a criminal offence.

V. [*Escape and Prison-breach.*—To suffer the *escape* of a person, lawfully arrested for crime, so that he shall gain his liberty before he is delivered in due course of law, is also an offence against public justice (*t*). And therefore, officers who, after an arrest, *negligently* permit a felon to escape, are punishable by fine (*u*); but if they *voluntarily* contrive the escape, then their offence (it is generally agreed) amounts to the same kind of offence, and is punishable in the same degree, as the offence for which the prisoner was in custody, whether treason, felony, or trespass. And this whether he were actually committed to gaol, or only under a bare arrest (*x*). But the officer

(*s*) *Vide sup.* p. 58.

(*t*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 17, s. 3; c. 19, ss. 2, 3.

(*u*) 1 Hale, P. C. 600.

(*x*) *Ibid.* 590; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 19, s. 22.

[cannot be thus punished as for felony, till the original delinquent hath actually received judgment, or been outlawed, in respect of the crime for which he was so committed or arrested ; otherwise, it might happen, that the officer might be punished for felony, and the person arrested and escaping might turn out to be an innocent man. It is said, however, that when the arrest is for treason, the officer will be liable, in the event of an *escape*, before any conviction or attaint of the traitor (*y*) ; and, in all cases, even before the conviction of the principal party, an officer or any private person who, having another in his lawful custody as for a crime committed, violates his duty by permitting an escape from prison, or before he has delivered him over to the proper authority, may be fined and imprisoned for a misdemeanor, and may be kept to hard labour besides (*z*).

As for the prisoner himself, *breach of prison*, or even conspiring to break it, was felony at common law, for whatever cause he was committed (*a*). But this severity was mitigated by the statute *De frangentibus prisonam*, (23 Edw. I. (1295)), which enacted, that the offence should be deemed felonious, only when judgment for felony would have ensued in case of his conviction (*b*). So that to break prison, when committed for any treason or other felony and thereupon actually to escape, is still felony as at the common law (*c*) ; and the offence is now punishable with penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than three years, or with imprisonment, (with or without hard labour,) not exceeding two years (*d*). And to break prison, when lawfully confined upon any

(*y*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 19, s. 26.

(*z*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* c. 20, s. 6 ; Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, s. 29.

(*a*) Bract. l. 3, tr. 2, c. 9 ; 1 Hale, P. C. 607 ; *R.* v. *Haswell* (1821), Russ. & R. 458.

(*b*) 1 Hale, P. C. 609.

(*c*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* c. 18, s. 11.

(*d*) Criminal Law Act, 1827, ss. 8, 9 ; Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, s. 29 ; Penal Servitude Acts, 1853, 1857, and 1891.

[other inferior charge, is a high misdemeanor, and is punishable with fine and imprisonment (*e*).] In connection with this offence, it may be noticed, that for a convict to be at large without lawful cause, before the expiration of the term for which he has been sentenced to be kept in penal servitude, is an offence punishable with penal servitude for life, or else with imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding two years (*f*).

[VI. *Rescue and Aiding Prisoners to Escape.—Rescue* is the offence of forcibly and knowingly freeing another from any lawful arrest or imprisonment ; and such rescue of one apprehended for felony, is felony ; for treason, treason ; and for a misdemeanor, a misdemeanor also (*g*), as it also is for the rescue of any one who is in civil custody (*h*). But it is said, that here also (as in the case of an escape permitted by the gaoler), the principal felon must first receive judgment before the rescuer can be punished as for felony, though even before, the rescuer may be prosecuted, at the discretion of the crown, as for a misprision (*i*). These offences have now, however, been specially provided against by statute ; for, by the Murder Act, 1751, section 9, if any person shall rescue, or attempt to rescue, out of prison a person committed for, or found guilty of, murder, or a person convicted of murder, while going to, or during, execution, he shall be deemed guilty of felony.] Nowadays, he may be sentenced to penal servitude for life, or for not less than three years, or to

(*e*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 18, s. 21.

(*f*) See the Transportation Act, 1824, s. 22 ; Transportation Act, 1834 ; Central Criminal Court Act, 1846 ; Penal Servitude Acts, 1853 and 1857. See as to escapes from *Parkhurst*, the Parkhurst Prison Act, 1838, ss. 12, 13; and from *Pentonville*, the Pentonville Prison Act, 1842, s. 24 ; and as to offenders in the colonies escaping to the United Kingdom, and *vice versâ*, the Fugitive Offenders Act, 1881.

(*g*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* c. 21.

(*h*) *R.* v. *Allan* (1841), Car. & M. 295.

(*i*) 1 Hale, P. C. 598, 607 ; Fost. 344 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 21, s. 8.

imprisonment, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, for not more than two years (*k*). By the Prisoners of War (Escape) Act, 1812, every person assisting a *prisoner of war* to escape will be guilty of felony, and may be sentenced to the same punishments as just mentioned (*l*). Also, by the Rescue Act, 1821, section 1, the rescuer of any person charged with felony, is declared guilty of felony, and may be sentenced to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than five (now three) years, or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for not less than two years (*m*). By the Transportation Act, 1824, whoever shall rescue, or attempt to rescue, any offender under sentence or order of penal servitude (*n*) from the custody of any person charged with his removal, shall be guilty of felony (*o*), and may be sentenced to penal servitude for life, or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding two years. Finally, by the Prison Act, 1865, section 37, every person who aids any prisoner in escaping, or attempting to escape, from any prison, or who with intent to facilitate his escape conveys anything into the prison, shall be guilty of felony, and be imprisoned with hard labour to the extent of two years (*p*).

VII. [Another offence of the class under consideration is that of *Taking a Reward under Pretence of Helping the Owner to Stolen Goods*. This was a contrivance carried to a great length of villany in the reign of George the First, the confederates of the felons thus disposing of stolen goods, at a cheap rate, to the owners themselves, and thereby stifling all further inquiry. The famous

(*k*) Punishment of Offences Act, 1837; Central Criminal Court Act, 1846; Penal Servitude Acts, 1853, 1857, and 1891.

(*l*) *R.* v. *Martin* (1811), Russ. & R. 196.

(*m*) Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1.

(*n*) Penal Servitude Act, 1857, s. 6.

(*o*) Sect. 22.

(*p*) *R.* v. *Payne* (1866), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 27.

[Jonathan Wild had under him a well-disciplined corps of thieves, who brought in all their spoils to him: and he kept a sort of public office, for restoring them to the owners at half price. To prevent which audacious practices, to the ruin, and in defiance, of public justice, it was enacted, by one of the miscellaneous provisions of the Piracy Act, 1717 (*q*), that whoever should take a reward, under the pretence of helping anyone to stolen goods, should suffer as the felon who stole them, unless, indeed, he caused such principal felon to be apprehended and brought to trial, and also gave evidence against him; and Wild, still continuing in his old practice, was, upon this statute, at last convicted and executed.] These provisions were afterwards repealed by the 7 & 8 Geo. IV. (1826), c. 27, section 1, but were at the same time, by the 7 & 8 Geo. IV. (1826), c. 29, section 58, re-cast, with improvements calculated for the more effectual prevention of the offence. By the enactment at present in force (viz., the Larceny Act, 1861, s. 101), it is provided, that whosoever shall corruptly take any money or reward, directly or indirectly, under pretence or upon account of helping any person to any chattel, money, valuable security, or other property whatever, which shall, by any felony or misdemeanor, have been stolen, taken, obtained, extorted, embezzled, converted, or disposed of, as in that Act mentioned, shall (unless he shall have used all due diligence to cause the offender to be brought to trial for the same) be deemed guilty of felony; and the punishment is penal servitude for seven or for not less than three years, or imprisonment, with or without hard labour and solitary confinement, for any term not exceeding two years. The offender, if a male under the age of

(*q*) Sect. 4; *R.* v. *Ledbitter* (1825), 1 Mood. C. C. 76. Section 7 of the Act deals with piracy, and it is this section which has influenced the framers of the Short Titles Act, 1896.

eighteen years, may be whipped in addition; and, as in so many other cases, he may also be bound over to keep the peace (*r*).

[VIII. *Compounding of Felony*, is the taking of a reward for forbearing to prosecute a felony; and one species of this offence, known in the books by the more antient appellation of *theft bote*, is where a party robbed takes his goods again, or other amends, entering into an agreement not to prosecute. This was formerly held to make a man an accessory to the theft: but is now punished only with fine and imprisonment (*s*). This perversion of justice, in the old Gothic constitutions, was liable to the most severe and infamous punishment; and the Salic law "*latroni eum similem habuit, qui furtum celare vellet, et occultè sine judice compositionem ejus admittere*" (*t*).] The law on this subject (which was formerly contained in the 7 & 8 Geo. IV. (1826), c. 29, s. 59) is now regulated by the Larceny Act, 1861, section 102, amended by the Larceny (Advertisements) Act, 1870, under which, even publicly to advertise a reward for the return of property stolen or lost, and in such advertisement to use words purporting that no questions will be asked, or purporting that a reward will be paid without seizing or making inquiry after the person producing the same, or promising to return to a pawnbroker or other person any money he may have advanced upon or paid for such property, or offering any other sum of money or reward for the return of the same,—subjects the advertiser, the printer, and the publisher, to a forfeiture of fifty pounds each. But no proceeding is to be taken, against the printer or publisher of the advertisement, *more than six months* after the forfeiture was incurred; nor (in any case) unless the written

(*r*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 117.
(*s*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 59, s. 6.
(*t*) Stiernh. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 3, c. 5; *R.* v. *Burgess*, 1886, 16 Q. B. D. 141.

assent of the Attorney or Solicitor General has been first obtained (*u*).

IX. The mere *Concealment of a Felony* is also criminal; and is described, in the books, as *Misprision of Felony*. Misprision of felony is defined as the concealment of some felony, not being treason, committed by another person, but without such previous concert with, or subsequent assistance of him, as will make the concealer an accessory before or after the fact. [By the Statute of Westminster the First, 3 Edw. I. (1275), c. 9, the punishment of misprision, in a public officer, is imprisonment for a year and a day, and in a common person for a less time; with, in both cases, fine and ransom at the king's pleasure, an expression which signifies here (as in other places where it occurs), not any extra-judicial will of the sovereign, but such as is declared by his representatives, the judges in his courts of justice—"*voluntas regis in curiâ, non in camerâ*" (*x*).

X. *Compounding of Informations upon Penal Statutes*, is an offence affecting the administration of justice, by contributing to make the law odious to the public. At once, therefore, to discourage malicious informers, and to provide that offences, when discovered, shall be duly prosecuted, it has been enacted, by the 18 Eliz. (1575), c. 5, section 4, amended as regards punishment by the Pillory Abolition Act, 1816, that if any person informing, under pretence of any penal law, make any composition without leave of the court, or take any money or promise from the defendant, to excuse him (which demonstrates his intent in commencing the prosecution to be merely to serve his own ends, and not the public good), he shall forfeit 10*l*.;] shall be liable to suffer such imprisonment or additional fine, or

(*u*) *Mirams* v. *Our Dogs Publishing Co., Ltd.*, [1901] 2 K. B. 564.

(*x*) 1 Hale, P. C. 375.

both, as the court shall award; and shall be thenceforth disabled to sue on any popular or penal statute (*y*). It is said, also, that compounding a *misdemeanor*, without the leave of the court, is illegal (*z*); yet [it is not uncommon, when a person has been convicted of a misdemeanor more immediately affecting an individual, as a battery, imprisonment, or the like, for the court to permit the defendant to *speak with the prosecutor*, before any judgment is pronounced, and, if the prosecutor declares himself satisfied, to inflict but a trivial punishment,—which is done to reimburse the prosecutor his expenses, and to make him some private amends, without the trouble and circuity of a civil action.

XI. *Common Barratry* is the offence of FREQUENTLY inciting and stirring up suits and quarrels between his Majesty's subjects, either at law or otherwise (*a*); but a single act of inciting such suits or quarrels is not barratry (*b*). The punishment for this offence in a common person, is by fine and imprisonment; but if the offender belongs to the profession of the law, a barrator, who is thus able as well as willing to do mischief, ought also to be disabled from practising for the future. It was, accordingly, enacted, by the Frivolous Arrests Act, 1725, section 4, that if any one who had been convicted of forgery, perjury, subornation of perjury, or *common barratry*, should practice as solicitor or agent in any action, the court, upon complaint, should examine the matter in a summary way.] If such conduct is proved, the offender may, by the effect of more modern enactments, be sentenced to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than three years, or

(*y*) *R.* v. *Best* (1839), 9 Car. & P. 368; *R.* v. *Crisp* (1818), 1 B. & Ald. 282.

(*z*) *Collins* v. *Blantern* (1767), 2 Wils. 341; 1 Smith L. C. (11th ed.) 369; *Keir* v. *Leeman* (1846), 9 Q. B. 371; *Windhill Local Board* v. *Vint*, (1890), 45 Ch. D. 351; 4 Bl. Com. 136, note by Christian.

(*a*) Bac. Abr. tit. *Barratry* (A)

(*b*) *R.* v. *Hannon* (1704), 6 Mod 311; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 81, s. 5.

to imprisonment for not more than two years. And [hereunto may also be referred another offence of equal malignity and audaciousness, that of suing another in the name of a *fictitious plaintiff*, either one not in being at all, or one who is ignorant of the suit; which offence, if committed in any of the superior courts, is left, as a high contempt, to be punished at their discretion, but in courts of a lower degree, where the crime is equally pernicious, but the authority of the judges not equally extensive, it was directed, by the 8 Eliz. c. 2 (1565), s. 4, to be punished by six months' imprisonment, and damages to the party injured.

XII. *Maintenance* is an officious intermeddling in an action that in no way belongs to one, by maintaining or assisting either party, with money or otherwise, to prosecute or defend it (*c*), a practice which (it is said) was greatly encouraged on the first introduction of Uses (*d*). This is an offence which keeps alive strife and contention, and perverts the remedial process of the law into an engine of oppression (*e*). By the Roman law, it was a species of the *crimen falsi*, to enter into in any confederacy, or to do any act to support another's lawsuit, by money, witnesses, or patronage (*f*). A man may, however, with impunity, out of charity and compassion, maintain the suit of his near kinsman (*g*), servant (*h*), or poor neighbour (*i*); and he may also maintain any action or other legal proceeding in which he has any pecuniary interest, actual or contingent (*k*). But in cases where the offence is

(*c*) Hawk, P. C. b. 1, c. 83, s. 23; *Alabaster* v. *Harness*, [1895] 1 Q. B. 339.

(*d*) *Dr. & Stud.* 203.

(*e*) Co. Litt. 368 b; 2 Inst. 208, 212, 213; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 83, s. 23.

(*f*) Dig. 48, 10, 28.

(*g*) Bac. *ubi sup.*; Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 26.

(*h*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* ss. 31, 32, 33.

(*i*) Bro. Abr. tit. *Maintenance* (14); *Harris* v. *Brisco* (1886), 17 Q. B. D. 504.

(*k*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* ss. 14, 15; *Master* v. *Miller* (1791), 4 T. R. 320, at p. 340; *Earle* v. *Hopwood* (1861), 9 C. B. (N.S.) 566; *Bradlaugh* v. *Newdegate* (1883), 11 Q. B. D. 1.

[committed, its punishment by the common law, and also by the 1 Rich. II. (1377), c. 4, is fine and imprisonment (*l*), together with, by the 32 Hen. VIII. (1540), c. 9, a forfeiture of ten pounds.

XIII. *Champerty* (*campi partitio*) is a species of maintenance, and is punished in the same manner (*m*); being a bargain with a plaintiff or defendant *campum partiri*, to divide the land or other matter sued for, if he shall prevail at law, whereupon the champertor is to carry on or defend the action at his own expense (*n*). These pests of civil society, that are perpetually endeavouring to disturb the repose of their neighbours, and officiously interfering in other men's quarrels, even at the hazard of their own fortunes, were severely animadverted upon by the Roman law,—"*qui improbè coëunt in alienam litem, ut quicquid ex* "*condemnatione in rem ipsius redactum fuerit, inter eos* "*communicaretur, lege Juliâ de vi privatâ tenentur*" (*o*); and were punished by the forfeiture of a third part of their goods, and by perpetual infamy. To this head must also be referred the provisions of the statute 32 Hen. VIII. (1540), c. 9, that no one shall sell or purchase any pretended right or title to land, unless the vendor hath received the profits thereof for one whole year before such grant, or hath been in actual possession of the land, or of the reversion or remainder, on pain that both purchaser and vendor shall each forfeit the value of such land to the king and the prosecutor (*q*);] but this provision has recently been repealed (*r*).

XIV. The offence of *Conspiracy* may be correctly described, as a combination or agreement between two or more persons to carry into effect a purpose hurtful to some

(*l*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 38; 2 Inst. 208.

(*m*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* c. 84, s. 1.

(*n*) Ordin. de Conspir. 33 Edw. 1.

(*o*) Dig. 48, 7, 10.

(*q*) Sect. 2. *Cholmondeley* v. *Clinton* (1821), 4 Bligh, 1; *Jenkins* v. *Jones* (1882), 9 Q. B. D. 128; *Kennedy* v. *Lyell* (1885), 15 Q. B. D. 497.

(*r*) Land Transfer Act, 1897, s. 11.

individual, or to particular classes of the community, or to the public at large (*s*). Thus, there may be conspiracy to seduce a female (*t*) ; to injure the public health by selling unwholesome provisions (*u*) ; to raise the funds by the propagation of false intelligence (*x*) ; to defraud some person or persons of his or their property (*y*) ; and the like (*z*) ; besides conspiracies to murder, or to commit any other of the greater offences. But one of the chief species of this offence, (and that which brings it within the subject-matter of the present chapter,) is that of *falsely and maliciously conspiring to indict an innocent man* (*a*). [This is an abuse and perversion of justice ; for which the party injured may either have a civil action, or else the conspirators may be indicted at the suit of the Crown. Upon conviction, conspirators were, by the antient common law, to receive what was called the villenous judgment (*b*),—viz., to lose their *liberam legem*, whereby they were discredited and disabled as jurors and witnesses ; to forfeit their goods and chattels, and lands for life ; to have those lands wasted, their houses razed, their trees rooted up, and their bodies committed to prison (*c*). But it is now the better opinion, that the villenous judgment is, by long disuse, become obsolete, it not having been pronounced for some ages ; and instead thereof, such conspirators are usually sentenced to fine and imprisonment.] To which, by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, section 29, may now be

(*s*) *Mulcahy* v. *The Queen* (1868), L. R. 3 H. L. 306 ; *R.* v. *Warburton* (1870), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 274.

(*t*) *R.* v. *Lord Grey* (1682), 9 St. Tri. 127 ; *R.* v. *Delaval* (1763), 3 Burr. 1434.

(*u*) *R.* v. *Mackarty and Fordenbourgh* (1705), 2 Ld. Raym. 1179 ; 2 East, P. C. c. 18, s. 5; 6 East, 133.

(*x*) *R.* v. *De Berenger* (1814), 3 M. & S. 67.

(*y*) *R.* v. *Gompertz and others* (1846), 9 Q. B. 824.

(*z*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 72, s. 2.

(*a*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* ss. 2, 9 ; 3 Inst. 143 ; *R.* v. *Spragg* (1760), 2 Burr. 993 ; *R.* v. *Macdaniel* (1755), 19 St. Tri. 746; 1 Leach, 45.

(*b*) Bro. Abr. tit. *Conspiracy*, 28.

(*c*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 72, s. 9.

added, in most cases of conspiracy, hard labour, during the whole or any part of the term of imprisonment.

With respect to this offence of conspiracy in general, and not merely when it affects the administration of justice, it may be further remarked, that it is deemed to consist rather in the guilty combination or agreement, than in the act by which it is carried into effect. And therefore, in an indictment for conspiring to do a thing in itself unlawful, it has never been held essential to allege that the thing was in fact done (*d*); though, supposing it to have been done, it is usual to state the unlawful agreement or conspiracy first, and then to charge the thing done, (or overt act, as it is called,) to have been committed in pursuance of the conspiracy (*e*). Since conspiracy cannot exist without a combination of two persons at the least, a husband and wife cannot conspire together (*f*). And on the trial of an indictment charging three persons jointly with conspiring together, if one pleads guilty and has judgment passed against him, and the other two are acquitted, the judgment passed against the one who pleaded guilty is bad, and cannot stand (*g*). It is also observable, that the effect of the state of the law relative to conspiracy is often to render a purpose criminal when concerted by several, which would not be of that character, but at the most a civil injury, if entertained merely by an individual. A distinction which rests on very solid ground; for though every wrong may not be of dangerous tendency to the public, yet every coalition to promote wrong is manifestly of that character (*h*). Accordingly, it is held, that a false and

(*d*) 9 Rep. 56 b; *R.* v. *Seward* (1834), 1 A. & E. 706.

(*e*) *R.* v. *Steel* (1841), Car. & M. 337.

(*f*) 1 Hawk. c. 72, s. 8.

(*g*) *R.* v. *Plummer*, [1902] 2 K. B. 339.

(*h*) *Scott* v. *Brown*, [1892] 2 Q. B. 724; *Mogul Steamship Co.* v. *MacGregor & Co.*, [1892] A. C. 25; *Lyons & Sons* v. *Wilkins*, [1896] 1 Ch. 811; [1899] 1 Ch. 255; but see *Allen* v. *Flood*, [1898] A. C. 1; *Huttley* v. *Simmons*, [1898] 1 Q. B. 181.

malicious indictment preferred by an individual is no crime, though it may be the ground of a civil action (*i*); while if planned by several persons, it is the criminal offence of conspiracy. So a combination among workmen to raise the price of wages, was once deemed to be, in every case, a conspiracy, though the same object, if contemplated by a single workman, would not have been criminal, or even actionable (*k*). But, so far as regards this latter variety of the offence, the law as to efforts to obtain a rise in wages has been materially altered by the Trade Union Act, 1871. This Act has been amended by the Trade Union Act, 1876; whereby it is enacted, that the purposes of any trade union shall not, by reason merely that they are in *restraint of trade*, be unlawful, so as to render the members liable to criminal prosecution for conspiracy or otherwise. But all such unions must be registered (*l*) in order to enjoy the full benefits of the Act. By the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875, section 3, an agreement or combination by two or more persons to do, or procure to be done, any act, in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute between employers and workmen, shall not be indictable as a conspiracy, if such act committed by *one* person would not be punishable as a crime. But the Act carefully provides, that any person who, with a view to compel any other person to abstain from doing, or to do, any act which such other person has a legal right to do, or abstain from doing, wrongfully intimidates or annoys him, shall be liable to pay a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds, or to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three months; and it is under this

(*i*) *FitzJohn* v. *Mackinder* (1861), 9 C. B. (N.S.) 505; *Abrath* v. *North Eastern Rail. Co.* (1883), 11 Q. B. D. 440.

(*k*) *R.* v. *Journeymen Tailors of Cambridge* (1721), 8 Mod. 10; *R.* v. *Ridgway* (1822), 5 B. & Ald. 527.

(*l*) *R.* v. *Registrar of Friendly Societies* (1872), L. R. 7 Q. B. 741.

enactment that illegal "picketing" in connection with strikes is repressed (*m*).

[XV. The next offence against the administration of justice which shall be noticed is that of *Perjury;* which is stated, by Sir E. Coke (*n*), "to be committed, when a "lawful oath is administered by any that hath authority, "to any person in any judicial proceeding, who sweareth "absolutely and falsely, in a matter material to the issue "or cause in question." The common law took no notice of any perjury, but such as was committed in some court having power to administer an oath, or before some magistrate, or proper officer invested with a similar authority, in some proceedings relative to an action or criminal prosecution; for it esteemed all other oaths unnecessary at least, and therefore would not punish the breach of them.] But, by the express provision of many statutes, it has now been enacted, that a false oath taken in certain cases, though not of a judical kind, shall be deemed to amount to perjury, and be visited with the same penalties; moreover, these penalties attach also to wilful falsehood in an *affirmation* by a *Quaker*, *Moravian*, or *Separatist*, or now, in fact, by any one, and whether as a *witness*, or as a *juror*, or in any other capacity (*o*).

A mere voluntary oath, however, that is, an oath administered in a case, and under circumstances, for which the law has not provided, is not one on which perjury can be assigned; for as such a proceeding is not required, so neither is it protected, by the law. Indeed, such voluntary oaths are expressly prohibited by the Statutory Declarations Act, 1835, which provides that a certain form of declaration may be substituted for them, and that any

(*m*) *Connor* v. *Kent*, [1891] 2 Q. B. 545; *R.* v. *McKenzie*, [1892] 2 Q. B. 519; *Lyons* v. *Wilkins*, [1896] 1 Ch. 811; [1899] 1 Ch. 255.

(*n*) 3 Inst. 164.

(*o*) Quakers and Moravians Act, 1833 and 1838; Oaths Act, 1888

party falsely making such statutable declaration shall be guilty of a misdemeanor.

Perjury, according to the above definition, must be *absolute*, as well as false; that is, it must be in positive terms. Yet a man will be guilty of the offence, if he swears he believes to be true a fact or statement which he knows to be false (*p*). [Perjury must also be *corrupt* or *wilful*, that is, it must be committed *malo animo*, not upon surprise or the like (*q*). It must also be, in some point, *material* to the question in dispute (*r*); for if it only be in some trifling collateral circumstance to which no regard is paid, it is no more penal than in the voluntary extra-judicial oaths before mentioned.]

Subornation of Perjury is the offence of procuring another person to take such a false oath as constitutes perjury in the principal; and if the party tampered with does not actually take the oath, the person inciting him so to do, although not guilty of subornation, is still liable to some punishment (*s*). Perjury and subornation are both misdemeanors; and it may be noticed, that any court, whether civil or criminal, and whether of summary jurisdiction or otherwise, has, in general, the power to direct a witness to be prosecuted for perjury, in regard to the evidence he has given in any cause or proceeding had therein (*t*).

[As to the punishment of perjury, at common law, it has been various; having been anciently death, afterwards banishment, or cutting out the tongue, then forfeiture of goods, and later still, fine and imprisonment. But additional punishments for this offence were from time to time enacted by various statutes. Thus, by the 5 Eliz.

(*p*) *Pedley's Case* (1784), 1 Leach, 325; *R.* v. *Schlesinger* (1847), 10 Q. B. 670.

(*q*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 69, s. 2.

(*r*) *R.* v. *Aylett* (1785), 1 T. R. 63; *R.* v. *Philpotts* (1851), 21 L. J. M. C. 18.

(*s*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 2.

(*t*) Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, s. 19.

[(1562) c. 9, an offender convicted of perjury was made liable to be fined 20*l.*, and if convicted of subornation, to be fined 40*l.* ; and, in default of payment, he was made liable to six months' imprisonment. Under the Perjury Act, 1728, and the Hard Labour Act, 1822, the perjurer or suborner might be sent to the house of correction, with hard labour, for seven years. And now (under the same statutes as modified by later Acts) he may be sentenced to penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than three years, or to imprisonment with or without hard labour for not more than two years (*u*).

It has been sometimes wished, that perjury, at least upon capital accusations, whereby another's life has been or might have been destroyed, were also rendered capital, upon a principle of retaliation ; and, indeed, where the death of an innocent person has been actually the consequence of such wilful perjury, it falls within the guilt of deliberate murder, and deserves an equal punishment, which, it has been said, our antient law in fact inflicted (*x*). But the mere *attempt* to destroy life by other means not being capital, there is no reason why that attempt by perjury should be so. And therefore, it seems, except perhaps in the instance of deliberate murder by perjury, to have been always sufficiently punished by our present law ; which adopted the opinion of Cicero, derived from the law of the Twelve Tables, "*perjurii pœna divina exitium*, "*humana dedecus*" (*y*),] and assigned to this offence the punishment of the *pillory*, until that punishment was abolished for this offence by the 7 Will. IV. & 1 Vict (1837), c. 23, having been previously abolished, for all other offences, by the Pillory Abolition Act, 1816. The incapacity of the perjurer to be a *witness* was abolished by the Evidence Act, 1843 ; but still there is a permanent

(*u*) *R.* v. *Castro* (1874), L. R. 9 Q. B. 350 ; (1880), 5 Q. B. D. 490 ; (1881), 6 App. Ca. 229 ; Penal Servitude Acts, 1857 and 1891.

(*x*) Britton, c. 5.

(*y*) De Leg. 2, 9.

dishonour attaching to the offender, even after he has endured the specific punishment inflicted for the offence.

[XVI. One species of the offence of *Bribery* is committed when a judge, or other person concerned in the administration of justice, takes any reward to influence his behaviour in his office (*z*). In the East, it is (or at one time was) the custom never to petition any superior for justice, not excepting even their kings, without a present, which is abhorrent to the spirit of justice, however suitable it may have been to the genius of despotic countries. Plato, in his ideal republic, orders those who take presents for doing their duty, to be punished in the severest manner (*a*); and by the law of Athens, he that offered, as well as he that received, a bribe, was prosecuted for the offence (*b*). The Roman law, though it contained many severe injunctions against bribery, as well for selling a man's vote in the senate or other public assembly, as for the bartering of common justice, yet, by a strange indulgence in one instance, tacitly encouraged this practice. For it allowed the magistrate to receive small presents, provided they did not in the whole exceed one hundred crowns in a year; not considering the insinuating nature and gigantic progress of this vice when once admitted (*c*). In England, the offence of taking bribes is punished, in inferior officers, with fine and imprisonment, as is also the offence of offering such bribe (*d*); but in our judges, it hath always been looked upon as particularly heinous, and there is even a tradition that, in the reign of Edward III., Chief Justice Thorpe was hanged for this offence (*e*). By

(*z*) 3 Inst. 145; Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 67.

(*a*) De Leg. l. 12.

(*b*) Potter, *Antiq.* b. 1, c. 23.

(*c*) Dig. 48, 11, 6.

(*d*) 3 Inst. 147.

(*e*) Blackstone (vol. iv. p. 139) says that Thorpe was actually hanged; but Lord Coke (3 Inst. 145) denies that Thorpe was hanged, or could be hanged, for this offence; and Lord Campbell, in his *Lives of the Chief Justices* (vol. i. p. 91), agrees with the latter, and considers the tradition in question to be an unfounded invention of

[a statute of the eleventh year of Henry the Fourth, all judges and officers of the king, convicted of bribery, were to forfeit treble the bribe, to be punished at the king's will, and to be discharged from the king's service for ever (*f*). And some notable examples have been made in parliament, of persons in the highest stations, and otherwise very eminent and able, but who have been contaminated with this vice.] The offence has become in the present day inconceivable, as regards our judges, for their integrity is stronger than their susceptibilities; but in the case of subordinate officials, the offence still requires to be repressed, and we find, that, in the case, *e.g.*, of Custom House officers (by the Customs Consolidation Act, 1876, s. 217), and of excise officers (by the Excise Management Act, 1827, s. 12), and of officers of inland revenue (by the Inland Revenue Regulation Act, 1890, s. 10), this offence is liable to the severest penalty; officers of these classes being peculiarly exposed to the temptation of a bribe.

XVII. Also, owing principally to the great increase, in recent times, of the number of corporations and of corporation officials, with largely increased powers, exerciseable under circumstances peculiarly exposing the parties to the influence and bribery of interested persons, it has been deemed advisable by the legislature to enact the Public Bodies (Corrupt Practices) Act, 1889, whereby it is made a misdemeanor, punishable as hereinafter expressed, on the part of any one,—First, by himself or with others corruptly to solicit or receive, or agree to receive, for himself or for any other person, any gift, loan, fee, reward, or advantage whatever, as an inducement to, or reward for, or otherwise on account of, any member, officer, or servant of a public body doing or forbearing to do anything in respect of any matter or transaction what-

Oliver St. John in the reign of Charles I.

(*f*) 3 Inst. 147. (The statute is not printed in the ordinary editions.)

soever in which the public body is concerned,—or, Second, by himself or with others corruptly to give, promise, or offer, any gift, loan, fee, reward, or advantage whatsoever, to any person, whether for the benefit of that person or of another person, as such inducement or reward or otherwise on such account as aforesaid (s. 1) (*g*). Every one convicted of the offence is made liable to be imprisoned for any period not exceeding two years, with or without hard labour, or to pay a fine not exceeding 500*l*., or to both such imprisonment and such fine ; and in addition, he forfeits the amount or value of any gift, loan, fee, or reward received by him, and may be adjudged incapable of being elected or appointed to any public office for seven years from the date of the conviction, and to forfeit any public office held at the time of the conviction. In the event of a second conviction for the like offence, he is in addition made liable to be adjudged for ever incapable of holding any public office, and incapable for seven years of being registered as an elector, or of voting at an election, either of a member to serve in parliament or of a member of any public body ; and to forfeit also all right to any compensation or pension to which he would otherwise have been entitled as a public official (s. 2). But no prosecution for an offence under the Act is to be instituted, except by or with the consent of the attorney-general or solicitor-general (s. 4) (*h*).

XVIII. [Another misdemeanor is the *Negligence of Public Officers* entrusted with the administration of justice and the maintenance of public order, as sheriffs, coroners, constables, and the like. This offence renders the offender liable to be fined : and, in notorious cases, will amount to a forfeiture of his office, if it be a beneficial one (*i*).

(*g*) Cf. *Mayor, etc. of Salford* v. *Lever*, [1891] 1 Q. B. 168.

(*h*) As to bribery at elections, *vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 407 *et seq.*

(*i*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 66 ; *R.* v. *Pinney* (1832), 3 B. & Ad. 947 ; *R.* v. *Neale* (1839), 9 Car. & P. 431.

[XIX. There is yet another offence against public justice, which is a misdemeanor of deep malignity; and so much the deeper, as there are many opportunities of putting it in practice, and the power and wealth of the offenders may often deter the injured from a legal prosecution. This is the *Oppression and Tyrannical Partiality* of judges, justices, and other magistrates, in the administration and under the colour of their office. However, when prosecuted, either by impeachment in parliament, or otherwise, according to the rank of the offenders, this offence is sure to be severely punished, with forfeiture of office, together with fine, imprisonment, or other censure, regulated by the nature and aggravation of the offence committed (*k*).

XX. Lastly, *Extortion* is an abuse affecting the administration of justice. It consists in any official (*e.g.*, the registrar or bailiff of a county court) (*l*) unlawfully taking, by colour of his office, from any man, any money or thing of value, that is not due to him, or more than is due, or before it is due. The punishment for this misdemeanor is fine and imprisonment, and sometimes a forfeiture of the office (*m*).]

(*k*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 68; *R.* v. *Hollond* (1794), 5 T. R. 607.

(*l*) County Courts Act, 1888, ss. 50, 51.

(*m*) 3 Edw. 1 (1275), c. 26; Sheriffs Act, 1887, s. 29 (2) (b); Coroners Act, 1887, s. 8 (2); 3 Inst. 145; Bac. Abr. tit. *Fees; R.* v. *Gillham* (1795), 6 T. R. 265; *R.* v. *Jones* (1809), 2 Camp. 131; *Re Captain Douglas* (1842), 3 Q. B. 825; *Douglas* v. *The Queen* (1847), 13 Q. B. 74; *Lee* v. *Dangar*, [1892] 1 Q. B. 231; [1892] 2 Q. B. 337.

CHAPTER IX.

OF THE MEANS OF PREVENTING OFFENCES.

[We now arrive at the consideration of the means of PREVENTING offences, or of the PREVENTIVE (as distinguished from the PUNITIVE) part of our criminal law (*a*). This preventive justice chiefly consists in obliging those persons, who are suspected of probable future misbehaviour, to give full assurance to the public, that the offence which is apprehended shall not happen ; and this they commonly do, by giving pledges or finding pledges or securities for keeping the peace, or for their good behaviour.

By the Saxon constitutions, these sureties were always at hand, by means of King Alfred's decennaries or frank-pledges (*b*). But this general security appears to have fallen into disuse and been neglected ; and there succeeded to it the method of making suspected persons find special securities for their future conduct. Of this we find mention so early as the reign of King Edward the Confessor, one of whose laws commanded such special security to be given,—"*tradat fidejussores de pace et legalitate tuendâ*" (*c*) ; and specific provision therefor was made by the 1 Edw. III. (1327), st. 2, c. 16 (*d*). Such special security is now in common use, either for *keeping the peace*, or for *good behaviour ;* and consists in being bound, by one or more securities, in a recognizance or obligation to the Crown, which is taken in some court, or by some judicial officer, or by a justice of the peace.

(*a*) Beccar. ch. 41.
(*b*) *Vide sup.* vol. i. p. 68.
(*c*) Cap. 18.
(*d*) *Willes* v. *Bridger* (1819), 2 B. & Ald. 278 ; 34 Edw. 3 (1360), c. 1.

[By such recognizance, the party bound acknowledges himself to be indebted to the Crown in the sum required, (for instance 100*l*.,) with condition to be void and of none effect, if he shall appear in court on such a day, and in the meantime shall keep the peace, either generally, towards the king and all his liege people, or particularly towards the person who craves the security; or the condition may be, to keep the peace for a certain period, not dependent on any appearance in court. Or, if the recognizance be for good behaviour, the condition is, that the party bound shall demean and behave himself well, or be of good behaviour, either generally or specially, for the time therein limited, as for one or more years, or even for life (*e*). If the condition of the recognizance be broken, by any breach of the peace in the one case, or by any misbehaviour in the other, the recognizance becomes forfeited or absolute, and the party and his sureties become the Crown's absolute debtors, for the several sums in which they are respectively bound (*f*).

Any justices, by virtue of their commission, and also the *ex officio* conservators of the peace mentioned in a former volume (*g*), may demand such security according to their own discretion; or it may be granted at the request of any subject, upon due cause shown, provided such demandant be under the Crown's protection. For which reason, it was formerly doubted, whether Jews, pagans, or persons convicted of a *præmunire*, were entitled thereto (*h*). Or if the justice is averse to act, it may be obtained by a mandatory writ, called a *supplicavit*, which will compel the justice to act as a ministerial, and not as a judicial,

(*e*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 60, s. 15.

(*f*) Levy of Fines Acts, 1822 and 1823; Criminal Law Act, 1826, s. 31; Fines Act, 1833; Metropolitan Police Courts Act, 1839, s. 45; Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1857, s. 13; Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, s. 9 (2); *R.* v. *Justices of West Riding* (1837), 7 A. & E. 583.

(*g*) *Sup.* vol. II. pp. 613, 614.

(*h*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 60, s. 3.

[officer ; and he must make a return of such writ, specifying his compliance, under his hand and seal (*i*). But this writ is seldom used ; for when application is made to the superior courts, they usually take the recognizances there, under the directions of the 21 Jac. 1 (1623), c. 8 ;] and in this case (as well as where the application is made to the court of quarter sessions), it is founded upon *articles* first exhibited in court, and supported by the oath of the exhibitant (*k*). According to the rule which obtained before the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, the truth of these articles could not be controverted (*l*). But now, by section 25 of that Act, the power of a court of summary jurisdiction, upon complaint, to adjudge a person to find sureties, is exercised in the same way as in the case of any other complaint, *i.e.*, the defendant is first heard in his own defence. Where the parties live in the country at a distance from London, the King's Bench Division will not in general entertain an application of this description ; which it is usual, in such case, to make to a justice of the peace in the neighbourhood, or to the court of quarter sessions (*m*). [A peer or peeress, however, cannot be bound over, either by justices or at quarter sessions ; though a justice of the peace has power to require sureties of any person *under* the degree of nobility, whether he be a fellow justice or other magistrate, or whether he be merely a private man (*n*). Wives may demand security against their husbands, or husbands (if necessary) against their wives (*o*). But infants ought to find security by their next friends only, and not to be bound themselves ; for they are incapable of engaging themselves to answer

(*i*) F. N. B. 80; *Clavering's Case* (1723), 2 P. Wms. 202.

(*k*) *Ex parte Williams* (1824), M'Cle. 493 ; *R.* v. *Dunn* (1840), 12 A. & E. 599 ; *Lort* v. *Hutton* (1876), 45 L. J. M. C. 95.

(*l*) *R.* v. *Doherty* (1810), 13 East, 171.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Waite* (1759), 2 Burr. 780 ; Burn, *Surety of the Peace* (ed. Chitty).

(*n*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 60, s. 5.

(*o*) *Sim's Case* (1743), 2 Stra. 1207.

[any debt, which, as we have observed in a former place, a recognizance is (*p*).

Thus far, what has been said is applicable to both species of recognizances, for the *peace*, and for *good behaviour;* but as these two species of securities are in some respects different, especially as to the cause of granting, or the means of forfeiting them, it may be useful next to consider them separately.

First, *as to Sureties to keep the Peace.*—Any justice of the peace may *ex officio* bind by recognizance, with sureties, to keep the peace, all who in his presence make any affray, or threaten to kill or beat one another, or who contend together with hot and angry words, or who go about with unusual weapons, to the terror of the people; also, all such persons as he knows to be common barrators, and such as are brought before him by a constable for a breach of the peace in the constable's presence, and all such persons as, having been before bound to the peace, have broken it, and forfeited their recognizances (*q*). Also, wherever any private man has just cause to fear that another will burn his house, or will do him a corporal injury, by killing, imprisoning, or beating him, or will procure others so to do, he may demand surety of the peace against such person; and every justice of the peace will grant such surety, if he who demands it will make oath that he is actually under fear of death or bodily harm, and will show that he has just cause to be so, by reason of the other's menaces, attempts, or having lain in wait for him (*r*). But the applicant must in such case also swear, that he does not require such surety out of malice or for mere vexation (*s*). This is called *swearing the peace* against another; and if the party does not find such sureties, he may immediately be committed till he does (*t*).] It is,

(*p*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. p. 178.
(*q*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 60, s. 1.
(*r*) *Ex parte Hulse* (1851), 21 L. J. M. C. 21.
(*s*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 8.
(*t*) *Ibid.* s. 9; *Prickett* v. *Gratrex* (1846), 8 Q. B. 1020.

however, provided by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1853, section 3, that no person committed to prison for such cause, under any warrant or order of one justice of the peace, shall be detained there for a longer period than twelve calendar months.

[Such recognizance for keeping the peace, when given, may be forfeited by any actual violence, or even by any assault or menace, to the terror of him who demanded it, provided it be a special recognizance; and, if the recognizance be general, then by any unlawful action whatever that either is, or tends to be, a breach of the peace, or by any private violence committed against any of the subjects of the Crown. But a bare trespass upon the lands or goods of another, though ground for a civil action, unless it is accompanied with a wilful breach of the peace, is no forfeiture of the recognizance (*u*). Neither are mere reproachful words, as calling a man a knave or a liar, which although they may tend to, do not amount to, a breach of the peace, so as to forfeit one's recognizance (being looked upon to be merely the effect of unmeaning passion and heat), unless they amount to a challenge to fight (*x*).

Secondly, *as to Sureties for Good Behaviour.*—This includes security for the peace, and also something more, as will presently appear. And, in particular, the justices are empowered, by the 34 Edw. III. (1360), c. 1, to bind over to good behaviour (or *abearance*) towards the king and his people, all those *that be not of good fame*, wherever they are found; to the intent that the people be not troubled or endamaged, nor the peace diminished, nor merchants and others passing by the highways of the realm disturbed or put in peril, by such offenders. And under the general words of this expression, *that be not of good fame*, it is holden, that a man may be bound to his good behaviour for causes of scandal (*contra bonos mores*),

(*u*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 60, s. 25.

(*x*) *Ibid.* s. 22.

[as well as for causes of violence (*contra pacem*) ; as for haunting bawdy houses with women of bad ame, or for keeping such women in his own home, or for words tending to scandalize the government, or in abuse of the officers of justice, especially in the execution of their office. Thus also a justice may bind over all night-walkers, all eavesdroppers, all such as keep suspicious company, or are reported to be pilferers or robbers, all such as sleep in the day and wake in the night ; all common drunkards, whoremasters, cheats, idle vagabonds, and other persons whose misbehaviour may reasonably bring them within the general words of the statute, as persons *not of good fame*,—an expression, it must be owned, of so great a latitude, as leaves much to be determined in the discretion of the magistrate himself. But if the justice commits a man for want of sureties, he must express the cause thereof with convenient certainty, and must take care that such cause be a good one (*y*) ;] and there is a similar limitation as to the period of detention in prison under the warrant of a single justice, as we mentioned in connection with a binding over to keep the peace, namely, twelve calendar months (*z*).

[A recognizance for good behaviour may be forfeited by all the same means, as one for the security of the peace may be ; and also by some others :—as by going armed with unusual attendance to the terror of the people, by speaking words tending to sedition, or by committing any of those acts of misbehaviour which the recognizance was intended to prevent. But the recognizance will not be forfeited, by barely giving fresh cause of suspicion of that which perhaps may never actually happen (*a*) ; for though it is just to compel suspected persons to give security to the public against misbehaviour that is apprehended, it

(*y*) Hawk. P. C. b. 1, c. 62, s. 4.

(*z*) Criminal Procedure Act, 1853, s. 3.

(*a*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 5.

[would be hard upon such suspicion, without the proof of any actual crime, to punish them by a forfeiture of their recognizance.]

Such are the doctrines laid down in the books with respect to recognizances for *good behaviour*. In what manner, however, and to what extent the provisions of the 34 Edw. III. ought at the present day to be enforced, may be doubtful; and justices, even at sessions, are recommended, by a learned writer on the subject, to refrain from acting under this statute of their own motion, where no complaint, requiring such recognizance to be taken, has been made, except indeed where a conviction for some offence of a dangerous kind has taken place, and the circumstances are such as to render its repetition by the same offender a probable event (*b*).

It is to be observed, moreover, that these powers, when exercised by a court of summary jurisdiction, upon complaint made, must, by the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, section 25, be exercised by an order under the provisions of the Summary Jurisdiction Acts, so that the complainant and the defendant and the witnesses may be examined and cross-examined; and the parties are subject to costs, as in other cases. The defendant, should he disobey the order, may be imprisoned for six months or for fourteen days, according as the court is a petty sessional court or otherwise (*c*).

When a person has been once CONVICTED of an offence, additional facilities for the prevention of crime, by the use

(*b*) 2 Arch. *Just.* 454.

(*c*) A "court of summary juris-"diction" is (by sect. 50) defined as any justice or justices of the peace, or other magistrate authorized to act under the Summary Jurisdiction Acts; and a "petty "sessional court" is (by sect. 20) defined as two or more justices sitting in a place wherein justices are accustomed to assemble, or which has been for the time appointed a place for holding special or petty sessions—definitions which are respectively continued in the Interpretation Act, 1889, s. 13.

of recognizances for keeping the peace and for good behaviour, have been made by the Criminal Law Consolidation Acts, 1861 (*d*). By the provisions of these Acts, whenever any person is convicted of *an indictable misdemeanor*, punishable under the Acts, the court may, in addition to, or *in lieu* of, any of the punishments authorized by the Acts, fine the offender, and require him to enter into his own recognizances, and to find sureties, either for keeping the peace or for being of good behaviour, or both; and in the case of a conviction for *felony* punishable under any of these Acts, may require the offender to enter into such recognizances and to find sureties, in addition to any punishment authorized by the Acts. But no person is to be kept in prison under these Acts, for not finding sureties, for any period exceeding one year.

And by the Probation of First Offenders Act, 1887, from a humane regard to the occasional lapses into crime of ordinarily virtuous people, it has been provided, that in any case in which a person is convicted of larceny or false pretences, or of any other offence punishable with not more than two years' imprisonment, *and no previous conviction is proved against him*, if it appears to the court before whom he is convicted, that (regard being had to his character and antecedents, or to his youth, or to the trivial nature of the offence, and to any extenuating circumstances) it is expedient that the offender be released on probation of good conduct, the court may (instead of sentencing him at once to punishment) direct that he be released, on his entering into a recognizance (with or without sureties) to appear and receive judgment when called upon, and in the meantime to keep the peace and be of good behaviour (s. 1); but the court, before directing such release, is to be satisfied that the offender

(*d*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 117; Malicious Damage Act, 1861, s. 73; Forgery Act, 1861, s. 51; Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 38; Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 71.

or his surety has a fixed place of abode or regular occupation in the county or place for which the court acts, or in which the offender is likely to live during the period of his release (s. 3). And if the court is afterwards satisfied, by information on oath, that the offender has failed to observe any of the conditions of his recognizance, it may issue a warrant for his apprehension; and when apprehended on such warrant, if he be not forthwith brought before the court having power to sentence him, he is to be brought before a court of summary jurisdiction, which may either remand him by warrant until the time at which he was required by his recognizance to appear for judgment, or until the sitting of the court having power to deal with his original offence, or may admit him to bail with a sufficient surety, conditioned for his appearing to receive judgment (s. 2).

We may also here refer to the provisions of the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871; under which (as amended by the Prevention of Crimes Amendment Act, 1885, and by the Penal Servitude Act, 1891), convicts who are out of prison, on licences or tickets of leave under the Penal Servitude Acts, are subjected to *police supervision*, and are required to notify to the police their place of abode for the time being. For breach of certain of the conditions of their licence, the licence itself may be forfeited, and for breach of others of such conditions, they may be re-committed to prison, for any period not exceeding three months, with or without hard labour; and for failure to report themselves to the police, they may be re-committed for any period not exceeding one year. By the same Act, provision is also made for keeping registers of all convicted persons, and for their better identification by means of photographs and otherwise. Also, persons twice convict may be subjected to the like supervision, for a period not exceeding seven years from the expiration of the sentence passed on their second conviction. Keepers of lodging-

houses, beer-houses, coffee-shops, and the like, who knowingly harbour thieves, prostitutes, and the like, or knowingly receive the stolen goods of such persons, are made liable to a penalty not exceeding 10*l.*, and in default of payment, may be imprisoned for a period not exceeding four months; and in addition, they may be required to enter into recognizances, with or without sureties, for keeping the peace or being of good behaviour during twelve months. For the better execution of the provisions of the Act, a power of search is given.

CHAPTER X.

OF COURTS OF CRIMINAL JURISDICTION.

[We have now to consider the method of *inflicting* those punishments, which the law annexes to particular offences. And we shall, in the first place, point out the several courts of criminal jurisdiction wherein offenders may be prosecuted to punishment ; and, in the second place, we shall explain the several proceedings which may be had in such courts.

First, *the several Courts of Criminal Jurisdiction.*—In discussing these, we shall begin with those which are invested with a public and general jurisdiction throughout the whole realm ; and we shall afterwards proceed to those which are invested with only a private and special jurisdiction, confined to some particular portions of the realm.

I. The Criminal Courts of a General Jurisdiction.

(1) *The High Court of Parliament.*—This is the highest court in the kingdom, for matters criminal as well as for matters civil. In speaking of its criminal jurisdiction, we have not to consider those Acts which have been occasionally passed by the parliament, to attaint particular persons of treason or felony, or to inflict pains and penalties, beyond or contary to the common law, to serve a special purpose ; for these are to all intents and purposes new laws, made *pro re natâ*, and are not an interpretation or application of existing laws. But we have to consider an *impeachment* before the lords, by the commons of Great Britain in Parliament, which is a form of prosecution according to the already known and established law.

[An impeachment is a presentment to this most high and supreme court of criminal jurisdiction, by the most solemn grand inquest of the whole kingdom (*a*). A commoner cannot be impeached before it, for any capital offence, but only for high misdemeanors (*b*) ; but a peer may be impeached before it for any crime, and it has been customary, (in the case of the impeachment of a peer for treason,) to address the Crown to appoint a Lord High Steward, for the greater dignity and regularity of the proceedings. The Lord High Steward was formerly elected by the peers themselves, though he was generally commissioned by the king ; but the appointment of a Lord High Steward in such cases appears not to be indispensably necessary, and the house may proceed without one (*c*).

The articles of impeachment are a kind of bill of indictment, found by the house of commons, and afterwards tried

(*a*) 1 Hale, P. C. 150.

(*b*) In the fourth year of Edward the Third, in the case of Simon de Bereford, a notorious accomplice in the treasons of Roger Earl of Mortimer, the peers said, with one voice, that, the said Simon *not being their peer*, they were not bound to judge him as a peer ; and although afterwards, on account of the notoriety of his offences, they consented, on the king's solicitation, to receive the charge and to give judgment against him, they caused a solemn protest, in respect of the offender not being a peer, to be entered in the parliament roll (Rot. Parl. 4 Edw. 3, n. 2 and 6 ; 2 Brad. *Hist.* 190 ; Selden, *Judic. in Parl.* c. 1). But Mr. Christian says, in his edition of Blackstone (vol. iv. p. 260), that, according to the last resolution of the House of Lords, a commoner *may* be impeached for a capital offence ; and he mentions, on the authority of the Journals of the House of Lords, the case of Sir Adam Blair and four other commoners, who, on the 26th June, 1689, were impeached for high treason, in having published a proclamation of James the Second (14 Lords' Journ. p. 260). But he adds, that this impeachment was not prosecuted with effect, on account of an intervening dissolution of the parliament. See also *Lives of the Chancellors*, by Lord Campbell, vol. iii. p. 357, n. ; the observations of Sir Erskine May on this subject in his *Law of Parliament ;* and the cases of *Edward Fitzharris* (1681), 8 St. Tri. 223, and *R.* v. *Boyes* (1861), 1 B. & S. 311.

(*c*) 1 Hale, P. C. 350 ; Lords' Journ. 12th May, 1679 ; Com. Journ. 15th May, 1679 ; Fost. 142, &c.

[by the house of lords, who are, in cases of misdemeanor, considered not only as their own peers, but as the peers of the whole nation. This is a custom derived to us from the constitutions of the antient Germans (*d*) ; and it has a peculiar propriety in the English constitution, which has also much improved upon the antient model. For, though, in general, the union of the legislative and judicial powers ought to be most carefully avoided, yet it may happen that a subject, intrusted with the administration of public affairs, may infringe the rights of the people, and be guilty of such crimes as the ordinary magistrate either dares not or cannot punish ; and of offences such as these the representatives of the people, or house of commons, cannot properly *judge*, but can only *impeach*, bringing the charge before the other branch of the legislature, namely, the house of lords, who, having neither the same interests nor the same passions as popular assemblies, may properly judge (*e*). It is proper, that the nobility should judge, to ensure justice to the accused ; and it is proper, that the people should accuse, to ensure justice to the commonwealth. And, therefore, among other peculiar incidents of this court, there is one of a very singular nature, which was insisted upon by the house of commons in the case of the Earl of Danby, in the reign of Charles the Second (*f*), and which is now established by the Act of Settlement, namely, that, while a pardon is in general pleadable in bar to an ordinary indictment, no pardon under the Great Seal is pleadable to an impeachment, by the commons of Great Britain in Parliament (*g*).] But, of course, the Crown may pardon a *convicted* offender.

[Before the High Court of Parliament is also to be tried any peer or peeress against whom *(during any session of parliament)* an *indictment* for treason or felony, or for misprision of either, is found, either by a grand jury of free-

(*d*) Tacit. *de Mor. Germ.* 12.
(*e*) Montesq. Sp. L. xi. 6.
(*f*) Com. Journ. 5th May, 1679.
(*g*) *R.* v. *Boyes* (1861), 1 B. & S. 311, at p. 328.

[holders in the King's Bench Division, or at the assizes under a commission of *oyer and terminer;* and such indictment is removed into the High Court of Parliament by writ of *certiorari* (*h*).

(2.) *The Court of the Lord High Steward of Great Britain.*—This court is instituted for the trial (*during the recess of parliament*) of peers or peeresses indicted for treason or felony (*i*), or for misprision of either (*k*). The office of this great magistrate is very antient, and was formerly hereditary, or at least held for life, or *dum bene se gesserit;* but now it is usually, and hath been for many centuries past, granted *pro hâc vice* only (*l*). It hath been the constant practice, and therefore seems now to have become necessary, to grant it to a lord of parliament, a commoner being incapable to try the delinquent peer (*m*). When, therefore, an indictment has been found, during recess, in the King's Bench Division, or at the assizes, against one having the privilege of peerage, the indictment is removed by a writ of *certiorari* into the court of the Lord High Steward, which court alone has power to determine it.] But this is only in case the offence be of the description before mentioned, viz., treason, felony, or misprision of treason or of felony; for if it be of any other kind, the privilege does not exist, and the peer must be tried by a jury in the court in which the indictment is found (*n*). Apparently, when the privilege exists of being tried in the court of the Lord High Steward, the peer or peeress may

(*h*) Bac. Ab. *Courts* (G); Com. Dig. *Parliament* (L. 13).

(*i*) 4 Inst. 58; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 2, s. 44; 2 Jon. 54.

(*k*) *R.* v. *Lord Vaux* (1612), 1 Bulst. 197.

(*l*) Pryn. on 4 Inst. 46.

(*m*) "*Quand un seigneur de parlement serra arrein de treason ou "felony, le roy par ses lettres patents "fera un grand et saye seigneur "d'estre le grand seneschal d'Angle-"terre: qui doit faire un precept, "pur faire venir xx seigneurs, ou "xviii,*" etc. (Year Book, 13 Hen. 8, 11.) (See Staundf. P. C. 152; 3 Inst. 28; 4 Inst. 59; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 2; Barr. 234).

(*n*) 2 Inst. 49; 3 Inst. 28, 30; *R.* v. *Lord Vaux* (1612), 1 Bulst. 197.

not waive the privilege (*o*) ; but this has been doubted (*p*). Moreover, the legislature has recognized this privilege. Thus, in the Central Criminal Court Act, 1856, under which the King's Bench Division is empowered to order certain indictments to be tried in the Central Criminal Court, the twenty-ninth section of the Act expressly provides, that it shall not apply to any indictment or inquisition charging any peer or peeress (or other person claiming the privilege of peerage) with any offence not now lawfully triable at any court of oyer and terminer or gaol delivery. [A peer may plead a pardon before the King's Bench Division ; and the judges thereof have power to allow it, in order to prevent the trouble of appointing a Lord High Steward merely for the purpose of receiving such plea. But he may not there plead any other plea ; for the plea of *guilty* or *not guilty* can only be pleaded in the court of the Lord High Steward, and this because, in consequence of such plea, judgment of death might be awarded against him. The king, therefore, in case a peer be indicted for treason, felony, or misprision, creates a Lord High Steward, *pro hâc vice*, by commission under the Great Seal ; which recites the indictment so found, and gives his grace power to receive and try it, *secundum legem et consuetudinem Angliæ*. Then, when the indictment is regularly removed by writ of *certiorari*, commanding the inferior court to certify it up to him, the Lord High Steward directs a precept to a serjeant-at-arms, to summon the lords to attend and try the indicted peer. This precept was formerly issued to summon only eighteen or twenty, selected from the body of the peers ; but afterwards the number came to be indefinite, and the custom was for the Lord High Steward to summon as many as he thought proper (but latterly not less than twenty-three), and then those lords only sat upon the trial (*q*).

(*o*) 3 Inst. 30.
(*p*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 44, s. 19.
(*q*) Kelyng, 56.

[However, this practice appeared to throw too great a weight into the hands of the Crown and of the Lord High Steward,—*e.g.*, when the Earl of Clarendon fell into disgrace with Charles the Second, it is said the design was formed of proroguing parliament, in order to try him by a select number of peers, it being doubted whether the whole house would fall in with the views of the court (*r*). Wherefore, by the Treason Act, 1695, it has been provided, that upon all trials of peers or peeresses for treason or misprision, all the peers who have a right to sit and vote in parliament shall be summoned, at least twenty days before the trial, to appear and vote therein. And every lord appearing, and taking the proper oaths, is to vote in the trial of such peer ;] and the decision is by a majority, which majority, it is said, must consist of twelve or more (*s*).

During the session of parliament, the trial of an indicted peer is not, as we have said, in the court of the Lord High Steward, but before the peers in the High Court of Parliament (*t*). Yet, even then, a Lord High Steward is always appointed to regulate and add weight to the proceedings ; but he is rather in the nature of a speaker *pro tempore*, or chairman of the court, than the judge of it. For the collective body (the peers) are therein the judges both of law and fact, the High Steward having merely a vote with the rest, in right of his peerage. But in his own court, the Lord High Steward is the sole judge of matters of law, as the lords triers are in matters of fact ; and as they may not interfere with him in regulating the proceedings of the court, so he has no right to intermix with them in giving his vote upon the trial (*u*). Therefore, upon the conviction and attainder of a peer for murder, in full parliament, it hath been holden by the

(*r*) Carte, *Life of Ormonde*, vol. ii.

(*s*) Blackstone (ed. Christian), vol. iv. p. 262, note.

(*t*) Fost. 141.

(*u*) See *R.* v. *Earl of Cardigan* (1841), 4 St. Tr. (N.S.) 602; Campbell, *Lives of the Chancellors*, vol. iii. p. 557, n.

[judges, that in case the day appointed in the judgment for execution should lapse before execution done, a new time for it may be appointed by the high court of parliament, during its sitting, though no High Steward be existing; or, in the recess of parliament, by the King's Bench, the record being removed into that court (*x*).

It has been a point of some controversy, whether the bishops have now a right to sit in parliament to try indictments of treason and misprision. Some incline to imagine them included under the general words of the statute of King William (*y*), "all peers who have a right to sit and "vote in parliament"; but the expression had been much clearer, if it had been "all *lords*," and not "all *peers*." For though bishops, on account of the baronies annexed to their bishopries, are clearly *lords* of parliament, yet (their blood not being ennobled) they are not universally allowed to be *peers* with the temporal nobility; and perhaps this word might be inserted purposely with a view to exclude them. There is, in fact, no instance of their sitting on trials for capital offences, even upon impeachments and indictments in full parliament, much less in the Court of the Lord High Steward; for, indeed, they usually withdraw voluntarily, entering a protest of their right to stay. It is observable, that in the eleventh chapter of the Constitutions of Clarendon, made in the council of the eleventh year of Henry the Second, the bishops are expressly excused, rather than excluded, from sitting and voting on trials, when they come to concern life or limb; "*episcopi, sicut cæteri barones, debent* "*interesse judiciis cum baronibus, quousque perveniatur* "*ad diminutionem membrorum, vel ad mortem.*" And Becket's quarrel with the king hereupon, was not on account of the exception (which was agreeable to the canon law), but of the general rule, which compelled the bishops

(*x*) Fost. C. L. 139. (*y*) Treason Act, 1695.

[to attend at all. And the determination of the house of lords in the Earl of Danby's case (*z*), which has ever since been adhered to, is consonant with these constitutions,—"that the lords spiritual have a right to stay and sit in "court in capital cases, till the court proceeds to the vote "of guilty, or not guilty" (*a*). It must be noted that this resolution extends only to trials *in full parliament*; for to the court of the Lord High Steward, (in which no vote can be given, but merely that of guilty or not guilty), no bishop, as such, ever was or could be summoned. And though the statute of King William regulates the proceedings in that court, as well as in the court of parliament, yet it never intended to new-model or alter its constitution: and consequently it does not give the lords spiritual any right, in cases of blood, which they had not before (*b*). What makes the exclusion of the bishops more reasonable is, that they have no right to be tried themselves in the court of the Lord High Steward, and therefore ought not to be judges there (*c*). For the privilege of being thus tried depends upon nobility, rather than upon a seat in the house, as appears from the trial of popish peers, while incapable of a seat there, and of peers under age and of the Scots nobility, though not in the number of the sixteen representative peers; and from the trial of females, such as the queen consort or dowager, and of all peeresses by birth, and of peeresses by marriage also, unless they have, when dowagers, disparaged themselves by taking a commoner to their second husband.]

(3.) *The High Court of Justice on the Crown Side of the King's Bench Division.*—This court takes cognizance of all criminal causes, from treason, down to the most

(*z*) Lords' Journ. 15th May, 1679.

(*a*) But where the proceeding is a *legislative* one, as in the case of a bill of attainder, the bishops are entitled to remain till the end. (See May, *Law of Parl.* p. 690.)

(*b*) Fost. 248.

(*c*) Bro. Ab. tit. *Trial*, 142.

trivial misdemeanor or breach of the peace (*d*) ; and a *grand jury* of the county of Middlesex may be summoned to attend the court, for the disposal of all indictments preferred herein (*e*). And not only may indictments be found herein, and other presentments made ; but hither also may indictments from all inferior courts be removed by writ of *certiorari*, though (under the provisions of the Criminal Procedure Act, 1853) the removal can only take place, either where the indictment in the court below is against a body corporate, or else where it is made to appear to the High Court, by the party applying for the writ, that a fair and impartial trial cannot otherwise be had, or else that a question of law, of more than usual difficulty and importance, is likely to arise upon the trial, or else that a view of the premises, or a special jury, may be required for the satisfactory trial of the case (*f*). The manner of trial in the King's Bench Division is (in felony or treason) *at bar*, that is, before the judges of the court sitting in *banc*, *i.e.*, as a divisional court (*g*) ; and in misdemeanors, it is either at bar (in cases of sufficient consequence), or else at *nisi prius*. In these latter cases, a special jury may be had (*h*).

[The judges of this court are also the supreme coroners of the kingdom ; and it is the principal tribunal of criminal jurisdiction, which is known to the laws of England, though the High Court of Parliament and the Court of the Lord High Steward, of which we have already spoken, are of greater dignity. For which reason, when the Court of King's Bench was removed to Oxford on account of the sickness in 1665, it was held, that all the then subsisting

(*d*) Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1873, s. 34 ; Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1875, s. 19.

(*e*) Middlesex Grand Juries Act, 1872.

(*f*) Sect. 4.

(*g*) Woolrych, *Crim. Law*, p. 162 ; *R.* v. *Castro* (1874), L. R. 9 Q. B. 350 ; *R.* v. *Jameson and Others*, [1896] 2 Q. B. 425 ; Crown Office Rules, 1886, rr. 160—165.

(*h*) Juries Act, 1825, s. 30.

[commissions of *oyer* and *terminer* and of general gaol delivery, in that county, were at once absorbed and determined *ipso facto*, in the same manner as by the old Gothic and Saxon constitutions, "*quievisse omnia inferiora judicia*, "*dicente jus rege*" (*i*). Into the King's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice hath also reverted all that was good and salutary in the jurisdiction of the court of *Star-chamber*,—*camera stellata* (*k*),—a court of very antient original (*l*), which, as re-modelled by the 3 Hen. VII. (1487) c. 1, and 21 Hen. VIII. (1529) c. 20, consisted of divers lords spiritual and temporal, (being privy councillors,) together with two judges of the courts of common law. Its juris-

(*i*) Stiernh. l. 1, c. 2.

(*k*) This is said (Lamb. *Arch.* 154) to have been so called, either from the Saxon word ꝥeoꝑan, to steer or govern; or from its punishing the *crimen stellionatus* (cozenage); or because the room wherein it sat—the old council chamber of the Palace of Westminster (Lamb. 148)—was full of windows; or because, *haply*, the roof thereof was at first furnished with gilded *stars*, to which latter etymology Sir Edward Coke (4 Inst. 66) accedes. And Blackstone (vol. iv. p. 263, *in notis*) suggests another etymology as plausible,—namely, that, before the banishment of the Jews under Edward the First, their contracts and obligations were denominated *starra* or *starrs*, a corruption of the Hebrew word *shetàr*, a covenant (Tovey, *Angl. Judaic.* 32; Seld. *Tit. of Hon.* ii. 34; *Uxor. Ebraic.* i. 14); and (by an ordinance of Richard the First, preserved by Hoveden), were deposited in certain public chests or repositories, the most considerable of which was in the King's Exchequer at Westminster. (*Memorand. in Scacc. P.* in the sixth year of Edward the First, prefixed to Maynard, *Year Book of Edward the Second*, fol. 8; Madox, *Hist. Exch.* c. 7, ss. 4, 5, 6.) The room at the Exchequer containing these starrs was probably called the *starr-chamber*; and when the Jews were expelled the kingdom, this room was applied to the use of the king's council, sitting in their judicial capacity. The first time the Star-chamber is mentioned in any record, it is represented as situate near the receipt of the Exchequer at Westminster, "*en la chambre des esteilles pres* "*la receipt al Westminster.*"—Claus. 41 Edw. 3, m. 13. Mr. Christian (Bl. Com. vol. iv. p. 267), referring to Blackstone's suggested derivation of the name, mentions, that, in one of the very ancient statutes of the University of Cambridge (*De Computatione procuratorum*, Stat. Acad. Cant. p. 32), the word *starrum* is twice used for a schedule or inventory.

(*l*) Lamb. *Arch.* 156.

[diction extended legally over riots, perjury, misbehaviour of sheriffs, and other notorious misdemeanors, contrary to the laws of the land. Yet this was afterwards, as Lord Clarendon informs us, stretched "to the asserting of all "proclamations and orders of state: to the vindicating of "illegal commissions, and grants of monopolies; holding "for honourable that which pleased, and for just that "which profited, and becoming both a court of law "to determine civil rights, and a court of revenue to "enrich the treasury: the council table by proclamations "enjoining to the people that which was not enjoined by "the laws, and prohibiting that which was not prohibited; "and the Star-chamber (which consisted of the same "persons in different rooms) censuring the breach of those "proclamations by very great fines, imprisonments, and "corporeal severities: so that any disrespect to any acts "of state, or to the persons of statesmen, was in no time "more penal, and the foundations of right never more in "danger to be destroyed" (*m*). And for these reasons, this court was finally abolished by the 16 Car. I. (1640) c. 10, to the general joy of the whole nation (*n*).]

It is to be noticed, that the jurisdiction of the High Court, on the Crown side of the King's Bench Division, now includes also the criminal jurisdiction of the *Court of Admiralty*, of which we spoke in a former volume. Such criminal jurisdiction (*o*), that is to say, the criminal jurisdiction exercised by the High Court of Admiralty, as held before the Lord High Admiral of England or his deputy (styled the judge of the Admiralty), originally [extended

(*m*) *Hist. of Rebellion*, vol. i., p. 122 (ed. 1819).

(*n*) Some reports of the proceedings in the court of Star-chamber are to be found in Dyer, Croke, Coke, and other reporters of the age; and there is in the British Museum (Harl. MS. vol. i. No. 1226) a very full, methodical, and accurate account of the constitution and course of this court, compiled by William Hudson, of Gray's Inn, an eminent practitioner therein. A short account of the same, with copies of all its process, may be found in 18 Rym. Fœd. 192, etc.

(*o*) 4 Inst. 134, 147.

[to taking cognizance of all crimes and offences committed, either upon the sea or on the coasts, out of the body or extent of any English county ; and (by the 15 Ric. II. (1391) c. 3) to taking cognizance of death and mayhem happening in great ships, being and hovering in the main stream of great rivers, below the bridges of the same rivers, which are then a sort of ports or havens, such as are the ports of London and Gloucester, though they lie at a great distance from the sea. But inasmuch as the Court of Admiralty proceeded without a jury, and in a method conformable to the civil law, the exercise of its criminal jurisdiction was contrary to the genius of the law of England ; inasmuch as a man might be there deprived of his life without the judgment of his peers, and guilty persons might escape punishment for want of the proof of the offence by two witnesses, or a confession of the fact by themselves. Wherefore, in the eighth year of Henry the Sixth, it was endeavoured to apply a remedy in parliament, which, however, then miscarried for want of the royal assent ; but, afterwards, by the 28 Hen. VIII. (1536) c. 15, it was enacted, that all treasons, felonies, robberies, murders, and confederacies on the sea, or within the jurisdiction of the Admiralty, should be tried, not as previously before the judge of the admiralty, according to the course of the civil law, but by commissioners under the Great Seal, viz., by the admiral, or his deputy, and three or four more, (among whom two common law judges were usually appointed ;) and that the indictment, being first found by a grand jury of twelve men, should be afterwards tried by a petty jury ; and that the course of proceedings should be according to the law of the land (*p*).] By the Central Criminal Court Act, 1834, which first established the Central Criminal Court, for offences committed in the metropolis and certain parts adjoining, the judge of the admiralty was placed, (together

(*p*) Offences at Sea Acts, 1799 and 1806.

with the lord mayor of London, the common law judges, and others,) among the judges of the new court ; and it was thereby provided, that, under any commission of oyer and terminer and of gaol delivery to be issued under the authority of the Act, such judges (or any two or more of them) might hear and determine any offences committed, or alleged to be committed, on the high seas, and other places within the jurisdiction of the admiralty, and might deliver the gaol of the court of any person detained therein for any such offence (*q*). Also, by the Admiralty Offences Act, 1844, as amended by the Indictable Offences Act, 1848 (*r*), reciting that it was expedient that provision should be made for the trial of persons charged with offences committed at sea, or within the admiralty jurisdiction, without the issue of any *special* commission for that purpose as required by the Offences at Sea Act, 1536,—it was enacted, that any justices of assize, oyer and terminer, or gaol delivery, might inquire of and determine all offences committed within the jurisdiction of the admiralty, and that all indictments, trials, and other proceedings before them in such cases, should be valid (*s*). And in each of the Criminal Law Consolidation Acts of 1861, there is contained a clause to the effect, that all indictable offences mentioned in those Acts respectively (which, it will be remembered, comprise larceny, malicious injuries to property, forgery, coinage offences, and offences against the person), if committed within the jurisdiction of the admiralty of England or Ireland, shall be deemed to be offences of the same nature, and liable to the same punishment, as if they had been committed upon land in England or Ireland, and may be dealt with and tried in any place in which the offender shall be apprehended or

(*q*) Sect. 22.

(*r*) *R.* v. *Serva* (1845), 2 Car. & K. 53 ; *R.* v. *Jones* (1845), *ib.* 165 ; *R.* v. *Anderson* (1868), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 161.

(*s*) *R.* v. *Eyre* (1868), L. R. 3 Q. B. 487.

be in custody (*t*). So that, upon the whole, the jurisdiction of the admiralty to try in England offences committed at sea, or out of the body of some English county (which was once indispensable, from the inability of the ordinary courts to try offences so committed), seems now to have been wholly transferred to the King's Bench Division and to the Central Criminal Court. Moreover, a new jurisdiction has been declared by the Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act, 1878, which provides, that an offence committed by a person, whether his Majesty's subject or not, on the open sea within the "territorial waters" of his Majesty's dominions (that is to say, on any part of the open sea within one marine league of the coast, measured from low water mark), is an offence within the jurisdiction of the admiralty (*u*), although committed on board of, or by means of, *a foreign ship;* and the offender may be arrested, tried, and punished accordingly. But the Act contains a proviso, that no proceedings are to be instituted under it against one who is not a subject of his Majesty, except with the consent of a secretary of state, and on his certificate that in his opinion the institution of such proceedings is expedient. In conclusion, upon this branch of the criminal jurisdiction of the King's Bench and Admiralty Divisions of the High Court, we will refer to the Admiralty Offences (Colonial) Act, 1849, the Colonial Courts of Admiralty Act, 1890, and the Foreign Jurisdiction Act, 1890; under the provisions of which Acts respectively, offences properly triable in the admiralty may be tried in the colonial courts of admiralty therein referred to, but with an appeal (in most cases) to the King in his Privy Council.

(*t*) Accessories and Abettors Act, 1861, s. 9; Larceny Act, 1861, s. 115; Malicious Damage Act, 1861, s. 72; Forgery Act, 1861, s. 50; Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 36; and Offences against the Person Act, 1861, s. 68.

(*u*) Sect. 7; cf. *R.* v. *Keyn* (1876), 2 Ex. D. 63.

II. The Criminal Courts of a Private and Special Jurisdiction (or the jurisdiction of which is *confined to particular portions* of the realm), are as follows :

(1.) *The Courts of Oyer and Terminer and of General Gaol Delivery* (*x*), usually called the "assizes," which are held at certain intervals throughout the year, and at the least twice in the year, in and for every county of the kingdom (*y*), with an exception, to be presently stated, as to the metropolis and parts of the adjacent counties. [These courts were mentioned in the preceding Book : and we then observed, that at the assizes the judges sit, as royal commissioners, by virtue of four several authorities, viz., the commission of the peace, the commission of oyer and terminer, the commission of general gaol delivery, and the commission of *assize*. We have already sufficiently explained the commission of *assize* (*a*) ; and we have also, to some extent, explained the commission of the peace (*b*).

(*x*) 4 Inst. 162, 168 ; 2 Hale, P. C. 22, 32 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 5, s. 6 ; 4 Bl. Com. 266.

(*y*) Until of late, there were (as a rule) two deliveries only of prisoners at the assizes in the course of the year—one in the spring, the other late in the summer ; but this being thought inconvenient, a practice arose of issuing commissions in the winter months, to try (in certain of the assize towns) prisoners awaiting their trial. This was known as the *winter* circuit. But the whole matter has now been re-arranged by the Winter Assizes Acts, 1876 and 1877, and the Spring Assizes Act, 1879,—the general effect of which statutes, and of the Orders in Council made thereunder, is, that counties may now be united, for the purpose of trying prisoners ; but nothing in the Acts "is to "affect the custom of holding "separate assizes in and for each "county twice a year." See Orders in Council of 28th July, 1893, and 28th May, 1894 ; and (for Cumberland and Westmoreland) the Order of 26th August, 1893.

(*a*) By the Judicature Act, 1873, s. 29, his Majesty, by commission of assize *or any other commission*, either general or special, may assign to any judge of the High Court of Justice, or "*other persons usually named in* "*commissions of assize*," the exercise of any civil or *criminal* jurisdiction capable of being exercised by such High Court.

(*b*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 615 *et seq.*

[But we may here remark, in addition, that all justices of the peace of any county, wherein the assizes are held, are bound by law to attend them, upon due notice given by the sheriff, under the penalty of a fine, in order to return recognizances, &c., and to assist the commissioners in such matters as lie within their knowledge and jurisdiction, and in which some of them have probably been concerned by way of previous examination. As regards the other two commissions, we must now speak more at length. And, First, the commission of *oyer and terminer* gives the judges authority to hear and determine all treasons, felonies, and misdemeanors committed within the county (*c*) ; and is directed to the judges and several others, or any two of them (*d*). But only the judges, or serjeants at law, the king's counsel, and barristers with a patent of precedence, named in the commissions, are of the *quorum*, so that the rest cannot act without the presence of one of these (*e*). Under this commission, persons may be tried whether they are in gaol or at large (*f*). But the words being to "inquire, hear, and determine," the judges can only proceed by virtue of this commission, upon an indictment found at the same assizes. For they must first "inquire," by means of the grand jury or inquest, before they are empowered to "hear and deter- "mine" by the help of the petit jury (*g*). Therefore, Second, they have, besides, a commission of general *gaol delivery ;* which empowers them to try, and deliver, every prisoner who shall be in the gaol when they arrive at the

(*c*) The commission of *oyer and terminer* covers the whole circuit ; that of *gaol delivery* only a single county.

(*d*) In Middlesex, the commission is directed to any *four* of them. (4 Chit. *Crim. Law*, 145 ; 1 Saund. 249 (*a*).)

(*e*) County court judges may now be included in the commissions (Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1884, s. 7 ; County Courts Act, 1888, s. 16). As to the forms of the commissions and of the writs by which they are accompanied, see 4 Chit. *Crim. Law*, 129, &c.

(*f*) 1 Chit. *Crim. Law*, 144.

(*g*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 5, s. 31.

[circuit town (*h*), whenever or before whomsoever indicted, or for whatever crime committed (*i*). It was antiently the course to issue special writs of gaol delivery for each particular prisoner, which were called writs *de bono et malo* (*k*) ; but these being found inconvenient and oppressive, a *general* commission for all prisoners has long been established in their stead. So that, one way or other, the gaols are (save in the few cases mentioned on pp. 276, 277, *post*) in general cleared, and all prisoners tried, punished, or delivered, at each assizes, and at convenient intervals throughout the year ; a constitution of singular use and excellence. Sometimes, also, upon urgent occasions, the king issues a special or extraordinary commission of oyer and terminer and gaol delivery, confined to those offences which stand in need of immediate inquiry and punishment ; upon which, the course of proceeding is much the same as upon general and ordinary commissions.]

What has been stated applies to courts of oyer and terminer and gaol delivery throughout the realm at large ; but for the metropolis and adjacent parts, a different constitution is provided, that is to say :—

The Central Criminal Court.—This court has been established by the Central Criminal Court Act, 1834, for the trial of offences committed in London, Middlesex, and certain parts of Essex, Kent, and Surrey. All indictments found at the different sessions of the peace, held within the jurisdiction of the Central Criminal Court, may be removed into this court by *certiorari ;* and offences committed out of its jurisdiction may (by order of the King's Bench Division) be tried in this court, under the provisions of the Central Criminal Court Act, 1856 ("Palmer's Act")

(*h*) That is, either in actual custody or out on bail,—persons out on bail being deemed in gaol by construction of law (1 Chit. *Crim. Law*, 146).

(*i*) 2 Hale, P. C. 32, 34.

(*k*) 2 Inst. 43.

and the Jurisdiction in Homicides Act, 1862 (*l*). The judges or commissioners, constituting or presiding over the court, include the lord mayor of London, the Lord Chancellor, the judges of the High Court of Justice, the aldermen, and the recorder and common serjeant of London, the judge of the City of London Court, any person who has been Lord Chancellor, or a judge of the High Court, and such others as the Crown shall from time to time appoint (*m*); but the court is, in general, constituted of one or more of the judges of the High Court, the recorder of London, the common serjeant, and the judge of the City of London Court. It is provided, that the Crown may issue its commission of oyer and terminer and gaol delivery to such court (*n*); and that the said judges, or any two or more of them (*o*), shall hold a session in the city of London or suburbs thereof, at least twelve times in every year (and oftener if need be), such times to be fixed by General Orders of the court, which Orders any four or more of the judges of the High Court of Justice are empowered from time to time to make (*p*).

(2.) *The Court of General Quarter Sessions of the Peace.*—This court, to which some reference was made in a preceding volume, is a court that must be held, in each county, once in every quarter of a year (*q*). By the Law Terms Act, 1830, section 35, the quarter sessions are appointed to be held in the first week after the 11th day of October; the first week after the 28th day of December; the first week after the 31st day of March; and the first week

(*l*) Before the establishment of the Central Criminal Court, there existed "the court of the Sessions "House in the Old Bailey," where the sessions of oyer and terminer and general gaol delivery for the city of London and the county of Middlesex were holden, eight times in the year.

(*m*) Central Criminal Court Act, 1834, s. 1.

(*n*) Sect. 2; Judicature Act, 1873, s. 76.

(*o*) *Leverson* v. *The Queen* (1869), L. R. 4 Q. B. 394.

(*p*) Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1881, s. 18.

(*q*) 4 Inst. 170; 2 Hale, P. C. 42; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 8.

after the 24th day of June. But by the 4 & 5 Will. IV. (1834), c. 47, power was given to shift the time for the April Quarter Sessions, so as to prevent these sessions from conflicting with the Spring assizes; and now, by the Quarter Sessions Act, 1894, repealing the 4 & 5 Will. IV. (1834), c. 47, in order that the holding of the Quarter Sessions may not interfere with any of the assizes, the justices may in any case fix or alter the time for holding the sessions, so as the sessions be not held earlier than fourteen days before, or later than fourteen days after, the week in which they would ordinarily be held. [This court is held before two or more justices of the peace (*r*), one of whom must be of the *quorum*; but the justices may, with a view to the despatch of the business before them, divide themselves into several courts (*s*), and they may also hold adjourned quarter sessions (*t*). The jurisdiction of the court, by the 34 Edw. III. (1360), c. 1, extended, in general, to the trying and determining of all felonies and trespasses whatsoever, committed within the county; but it was never usual to try in this court any greater offences than small felonies, the commission of the justices providing, that if any case of difficulty arose, the justices of the peace should not proceed to judgment, but in the presence of one of the justices of the King's Bench or Common Pleas, or of one of the judges of assize. And therefore murders, and other capital felonies, were usually remitted for a more solemn trial at the assizes.] And now it is expressly provided, by statute, that the justices of a county shall not, at general or quarter sessions, try any prisoner for treason, murder, or capital felony; nor for any felony which, when committed by a person not previously convicted of felony, is punishable with penal servitude for life (*u*); nor for any of the particular

(*r*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 613 *et seq.*

(*s*) Criminal Justice Administration Act, 1851, s. 15; Stipendiary Magistrates Act, 1858, ss. 9—11.

(*t*) Quarter Sessions Act, 1837.

(*u*) Quarter Sessions Act, 1842 Penal Servitude Act, 1857.

offences enumerated in the Quarter Sessions Act, 1842 (*x*). But, under the Burglary Act, 1896, they may try the offence of burglary; although, in the general case, the commitment will still be for trial before the Court of Assize. They were formerly restrained, also, from trying offences against the bankruptcy laws, and malicious injuries to property; but, now, offences under the Debtors Act, 1869, as modified by the Bankruptcy Act, 1883, ss. 163—167, may be tried at the quarter sessions. Apparently, malicious injuries to property may also now be tried in that court, the prohibition contained in the 9 & 10 Vict. (1846), c. 25, against the trial of these offences there, not being repeated in the Malicious Damage Act, 1861, which is the Act at present regulating this class of offences. The justices in quarter sessions are, however, restrained, by the Night Poaching Act, 1828, from trying the offence of three or more persons pursuing game by night; and they are also restrained from trying persons charged with fraudulent practices, as *agents*, *trustees*, *bankers*, or *factors*, under the Larceny Act of 1861 (*y*). [Neither can they try any newly-created offence, without express power given them by the statute which creates the offence (*z*). But there are many offences and particular matters, which by particular statutes belong properly to this jurisdiction,

(*x*) These are,—1. Misprision of treason. 2. Offences against the king's title, prerogative, or government, or against either house of parliament. 3. Offences subject to the penalties of *præmunire*. 4. Blasphemy and offences against religion. 5. Administering or taking unlawful oaths. 6. Perjury and subornation of perjury. 7. Making or suborning false oaths, &c., punishable as perjuries or misdemeanors. 8. Forgery. 9. Maliciously firing corn, grain, &c., wood, trees, &c., or heath, gorse, &c. 10. Bigamy, and offences against the laws relating to marriage. 11. Abduction of women and girls. 12. Concealing births. 13. Seditious, and blasphemous or defamatory libels. 14. Bribery. 15. Unlawful combinations and conspiracies, with certain exceptions. 16. Stealing, &c., records, &c. 17. Stealing, &c., bills, &c., and written documents relating to real estate.

(*y*) Sect. 87.

(*z*) *R.* v. *Buggs* (1694), 4 Mod. Rep. 379; Salk. 406.

[and ought to be prosecuted in this court; as the smaller misdemeanors and felonies, and especially offences relating to game, highways, alehouses, bastard children, the settlement of and provision for the poor, servants' wages, and apprentices (*a*).] The justices may, in a proper case, reserve any question of law for the determination of the King's Bench Division (*b*). But, owing to the quarter sessions having latterly fallen into the practice of leaving to the commissioners or judges of assize the trial of offences which were properly triable at the sessions, whereby the assizes were unduly burdened and prolonged, it is now enacted, by the Assizes Relief Act, 1889, that whenever any person has been committed to gaol, or admitted to bail, by a justice or justices of the peace, in pursuance of sections 22 or 25 of the Indictable Offences Act, 1848, charged with an indictable offence triable at quarter sessions, the persons bound over to prosecute and give evidence shall (unless the justice, or justices, for special reasons think fit otherwise to direct) be bound over to attend for that purpose at the next practicable court of quarter sessions having jurisdiction to try such person for such offence; and in such case the person charged shall be tried at the quarter sessions, and a court of oyer and terminer or general gaol delivery shall not be required to deliver him from gaol, unless the High Court of Justice shall by order direct that he be indicted and tried at a court of oyer and terminer or general gaol delivery having jurisdiction to try him for such offence (*s.* 1). Where, however, a prisoner has been committed to gaol on a charge for an indictable offence, and persons have been bound over to prosecute and give evidence at a court of quarter sessions, and the prisoner is not tried at that court, then the next court of oyer and terminer or general gaol delivery having jurisdiction in the county or place,

(*a*) Lambard, *Eirenarcha*, and Burn, *Justice of the Peace*.

(*b*) Crown Cases Act, 1848; Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1873, s. 47; Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1875, s. 19.

shall, on his application, either cause him to be tried at that court, or discharge him from his imprisonment, or for special reasons admit him to bail (s. 3).

Some of the offences triable at quarter sessions are prosecuted by way of *indictment*, with grand and petty jury, others by way of *appeal* from the orders or convictions of justices out of sessions, and others in a summary way by motion and order thereon. An order of the court of quarter sessions may in general be removed into the King's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice by writ of *certiorari* (*c*), and be there either quashed or confirmed (*d*), and such orders are also sometimes so removed in order to be enforced (*e*); but the removal of an *indictment* found at quarter sessions can now only take place, in the cases and under the circumstances provided for by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1853, as before explained (*f*).

[The records or rolls of the sessions are committed to the custody of a special officer, donominated the *custos rotulorum*, who is nominated by the royal sign manual. He is always a justice of the quorum; and, "among "them of the quorum," saith Lambard, "a man for the "most part especially picked out either for wisdom, "countenance, or credit" (*g*). The *custos rotulorum* had formerly the nomination of the *clerk of the peace* for the county;] but that official, who (among other duties) acts as clerk to the court of quarter sessions, and records all the proceedings of that court (*h*), is now appointed by the joint standing committee of quarter sessions and

(*c*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 27; ss. 22, 23.

(*d*) *R.* v. *Joule* (1836), 5 A. & E. 539; *R.* v. *Higgins* (1836), *ib.* 554; *R.* v. *Wilkes* (1855), 25 L. J. Q. B. 47.

(*e*) Quarter Sessions Act, 1849, s. 18; *R.* v. *Bateman* (1857), 8 El. & Bl. 584.

(*f*) *Vide sup.* p. 264.

(*g*) *Eirenarcha*, b. 4, c. 3.

(*h*) 37 Hen. 8 (1545), c. 1; 1 W. & M. (1688), c. 21; *Harding* v. *Pollock* (1829), 6 Bing. 25; and as to the clerk of the peace for the County Palatine of Lancaster, see the Lancaster County Clerk Act, 1871.

county council (*i*). The clerk of the peace for the county has also the custody of all such documents as, under the Standing Orders of either House of Parliament, are directed to be deposited with him (*k*); and he is, in general, also the custodian of awards made under Inclosure Acts and the like, these Acts in general so providing. He used to be paid by fees, but may now be paid by salary, with or without certain fees (*l*). He may, for sufficient reason, be suspended or dismissed from his office (*m*); and, in case of his illness, absence, or other emergency, he may appoint a deputy, or such deputy may be appointed for him (*n*). In the case of any borough having a separate court of quarter sessions, the clerk of the peace for such borough is appointed by the council of the borough (*o*).

The rapid growth of London, at the close of the eighteenth and the commencement of the nineteenth centuries, rendered the ordinary arrangements for the administration of criminal justice in the neighbourhood of the metropolis quite inadequate. And so, in addition to the establishment of the Central Criminal Court (*p*), previously noticed, for the trial of the more serious crimes, provision was made for the disposal of less heinous offences in the county of Middlesex by the Middlesex Sessions Act, 1844 (amended by the Middlesex Sessions Act, 1859), which required two sessions, or adjourned sessions, of the peace to be holden for that county in every calendar month. The first sessions in January,

(*i*) Local Government Act, 1888, s. 83.

(*k*) Parliamentary Documents Deposit Act, 1837; *R.* v. *Payn* (1837), 6 A. & E. 392.

(*l*) Criminal Justice Administration Act, 1851, s. 9; Criminal Justice Act, 1855, s. 18; Clerks of Assize, etc. Act, 1869, s. 11.

(*m*) 1 W. & M. (1688), c. 21, s. 6; Clerks of the Peace Removal Act, 1864; *R.* v. *Hayward* (1862), 2 Best & Sm. 585; *Wildes* v. *Russell* (1866), L. R. 1 C. P. 722.

(*n*) Recorders, Magistrates, and Clerks of the Peace Act, 1888.

(*o*) Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, s. 164.

(*p*) *Ante*, p. 272.

April, July, and October, respectively, were declared to be the general quarter sessions for the county; and the second sessions in January, April, July, and October, were directed to be treated as adjournments of the general quarter sessions. Every general sessions for Middlesex had all the powers and jurisdictions of a general quarter sessions for the county (*q*). By the Middlesex Sessions Act, 1844, her Majesty was empowered to appoint a person, being a serjeant, or a barrister-at-law of not less than ten years' standing, and in the commission of the peace for the county, and qualified by law to act as justice of the peace, to be the assistant judge of the said sessions during good behaviour. The assistant judge presided at the hearing of all appeals, and on the trial of all felonies and misdemeanors, and matters connected therewith. He was entitled to appoint a deputy, being a barrister of ten years' standing (*r*); and a temporary assistant judge could also be appointed in case of need (*s*).

The provisions of the Middlesex Sessions Acts have, however, been seriously modified by the Local Government Act, 1888 (s. 42), under which, by Order in Council of March 24th, 1902, a new scheme of quarter sessions for the administrative county of London has been introduced. This scheme, which, in many respects, adopts the provisions of the Middlesex Sessions Acts, provides for the holding of quarter sessions and adjourned sessions at least four times a year, at Clerkenwell and at Newington, under the presidency of a salaried chairman. On the retirement of the late assistant judge of the Middlesex Quarter Sessions, the arrangements were still further modified; and the provisions of the Middlesex Sessions Acts have now ceased to apply to those parts of

(*q*) Middlesex Sessions Act, 1859, s. 4.

(*r*) Middlesex Sessions Act, 1844, s. 8; Criminal Justice Administration Act, 1851, s. 14.

(*s*) Middlesex Sessions Act, 1859; Middlesex Sessions Act, 1874; Recorders, Magistrates and Clerks of the Peace Act, 1888.

the county which are outside the administrative county of London (*t*).

In many other corporate towns or boroughs, there is also a court of quarter sessions of the peace, having, in general, the same jurisdiction (subject to the like restrictions) in the trial of offences and other matters arising within the limits of the borough, as the county quarter sessions has within the county (*u*). Of such court, the recorder of the borough is, by the Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, section 165. constituted the judge ; and he is (by that statute) directed to hold the court once in every quarter of a year, or at such other and more frequent times as in his discretion he may think fit, or as his Majesty may direct. Such court may also be divided, for the better despatch of the business before it ; an assistant judge being in that case appointed (*x*).

(3.) [*The Court of the Coroner* is a court of record, to inquire, when any one dies in prison or comes to a violent or sudden death, by what manner he came to his end. But of the coroner and his office we have already treated at large in a former volume (*y*), and therefore shall not here repeat our inquiries ; only here mentioning his court, by way of regularity, among the criminal courts of the nation (*z*).]

There were also formerly many other petty courts having criminal jurisdiction, but they are for the most part fallen into disrepute, and some of them have been actually abolished. Of this class were,—

(1.) [*The Sheriff's Tourn or Rotation ;* which was a court of record appointed to be held twice every year,

(*t*) Local Government Act, 1888, s. 42 (12).

(*u*) Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, s. 166.

(*x*) 7 Will. 4 & 1 Vict. (1837), c. 19; Municipal Corporations Act, 1882, s. 168 (8).

(*y*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 605 *et seq.*

(*z*) 4 Inst. 271 ; 2 Hale, P. C. 53 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 9.

[within a month after Easter and Michaelmas, before the sheriff in different parts of the county (*a*), being indeed only the *turn* of the sheriff to keep a court leet, in each respective hundred (*b*). This therefore was the great court leet of the county; and although it has now been expressly abolished by the Sheriffs Act, 1887, section 18, yet out of it, at an early period and for the ease of the sheriff, was taken,—

(2.) *The Court Leet or View of Frank Pledge* (*c*); which, also, was a court of record, appointed to be held once in the year and not oftener, within a particular hundred, lordship, or manor, before the steward of the leet (*d*), being the king's court granted by charter to the lord of the hundred or manor. Its original intent was to view the frank pledges, that is, the freemen within the liberty; who, we may remember, according to the institution of Alfred, were all mutually pledges for the good behaviour of each other (*e*). Besides this, the preservation of the peace, and the punishment of divers minute offences against the public good, were the objects both of the court leet and of the sheriff's tourn, which had exactly the same jurisdiction, one being only a larger species of the other. All freeholders within the precinct were obliged to attend them, and also all persons commorant therein, which commorancy consisted in usually lying there; a regulation which owes its original to the laws of king Canute (*f*). But persons under twelve and above sixty years old, as also peers, clergymen, women, and the king's tenants in antient demesne, were always excused from attendance there, all others being bound to appear upon the jury, and make their due presentments. It was also, antiently, the custom, to summon all the king's subjects, as they

(*a*) 4 Inst. 259; 2 Hale, P. C. 69; Hawk. *ubi sup.* c. 10.
(*b*) Mirr. c. 1, ss. 13, 16.
(*c*) 4 Inst. 261; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 11.
(*d*) Mirr. c. 1, s. 10.
(*e*) *Vide sup.* vol. 1. p. 68.
(*f*) Part 2, c. 19.

[respectively grew to years of discretion and strength, to come to the court leet, and there to take the oath of allegiance to the king. The other general business of the leet and tourn, was to present by jury all crimes whatsoever that happened within their jurisdiction ; and, in the case of all trivial misdemeanors, not only to present, but also to punish them (*g*). The objects of their jurisdiction were therefore very numerous, ranging from common nuisances and other material offences against the king's peace and public trade, down to eaves-dropping, waifs, and irregularities in public commons. But both the tourn and the leet fell by degrees into a declining way (*h*), a circumstance owing, in part, to the discharge granted by the statute of Marlborough, (52 Hen. III. (1267) c. 10,) to all prelates, peers, and clergymen, from their attendance upon these courts ; and their business, for the most part, gradually devolved upon the quarter sessions, which it was particularly directed to do, in some cases, by the 1 Edw. IV. (1461), c. 2. In other cases, the jurisdiction of the leet devolved upon the justices out of sessions ; and now the leet, where it is still maintained (*i*), is commonly regarded as an obsolete jurisdiction, the process of which is seldom put in use, except for the purpose of magnifying some petty local disagreement.

(3.) *The Court of the Clerk of the Market*, is properly incident to every fair and market in the kingdom, to punish misdemeanors therein (*k*), just as the court of *pied poudre* determines all civil matters therein. The cognizance of weights and measures was a principal part of the

(*g*) Blackstone (vol. iv. p. 271) observes, that, in the Gothic constitution, the *hareda* (which answered to our court leet) "*de "omnibus quidem cognoscit, non "tamen de omnibus judicat*" ; and he cites Stiernh. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 1, c. 2.

(*h*) *Colebrooke* v. *Elliott* (1766), 3 Burr. 1859.

(*i*) In some places, the "court "leet" is still periodically held, before the steward of a manor, for the hearing of offences of a trivial character (Scriven, *Copyholds*, 7th ed. pp. 434—438).

(*k*) 4 Inst. 273.

[jurisdiction of this court ; which had to try whether these were according to the true standard or not. This standard was antiently committed to the custody of the *bishop;* and he appointed some clerk under him to inspect the abuse of them more narrowly. Hence this officer, though usually a layman, was called the *clerk* of the market (*l*). If the weights and measures were not according to the standard, then, besides the punishment of the party by fine, the weights and measures themselves were directed to be burnt. This court was the most inferior court of criminal jurisdiction in the kingdom :] but its functions seem superseded by the modern provisions with regard to weights and measures of which we give some account in a former volume (*m*). To what we there said, we need only add in this place, that any offences under the Weights and Measures Act, 1878, may be prosecuted, and all fines and forfeitures recovered, before a court of summary jurisdiction, *i.e.*, before petty sessions ; but there is an appeal to the next practicable court of general or quarter sessions (*n*).

[There are also some criminal courts of a confined and partial jurisdiction, which extend only to particular places, in which (through the royal favour, confirmed by Act of Parliament) these peculiar courts exist, for the punishment of crimes and misdemeanors arising within their precincts. We shall mention two of these, namely :

(1.) *The Court of the Lord Steward of the King's Household*, or (in his absence) of the *Treasurer, Comptroller, and Steward of the Marshalsea*, a court which was created by the 33 Hen. VIII. (1541), c. 12, with a jurisdiction to inquire of, hear, and determine "all treasons, "misprisions of treason, murders, manslaughters, blood-"shed, and other malicious strikings" whereby blood was

(*l*) Bacon, *English Government*, b. 1, c. 8.

(*m*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 513 *et seq.*

(*n*) Weights and Measures Act, 1878, ss. 56, 60 ; Weights and Measures Act, 1889.

[shed, in or within the limits of any of the palaces or houses of the king, or any other house where the royal person should abide. The proceedings were by jury, both a grand and a petty one, as at common law; but the jury was taken out of the officers and sworn servants of the king's household. The form and solemnity of the process, particularly with regard to the execution of the sentence, by cutting off the hand, which is part of the punishment for shedding blood in the king's court, are very minutely set forth in the statute 33 Hen. VIII. just referred to; wherein the several offices of the servants of the household in and about such execution are also described, from the serjeant of the woodyard, who furnished the chopping-block, to the serjeant farrier, who was to bring hot irons to sear the stump.] But so much of the above Act "as relates to the punishment of manslaughter, and "of malicious striking by reason whereof blood shall be shed," was expressly repealed by the 9 Geo. IV. (1828), c. 31; and the jurisdiction of the court itself has long since fallen into complete disuse.

(2.) *The Courts of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge* have a criminal as well as a civil jurisdiction, and this of an extensive kind. The chancellor's court, indeed, hath an authority to determine all offences which are misdemeanors only, when committed by a member of the university; but even treason, felony and mayhem, if found to have been committed by any member thereof, may be tried in the court of the *Lord High Steward* of the university.

[So far as Oxford is concerned, this jurisdiction rests on a charter of the 7th June, in the second year of Henry the Fourth (confirmed by the 13 Eliz. (1571), c. 29) (*o*);

(*o*) The Act of Elizabeth did not *expressly* confirm this charter, though it may well be that it is covered by the Act. (See, however, the remarks of COLERIDGE, C.J., in *Ginnett* v. *Whittingham*, *post*.)

[and by this charter, cognizance is granted to that university of all indictments of treasons, insurrections, felonies, and mayhems, which shall be found in any of the royal courts against a scholar or privileged person. They are to be tried before the high steward of the university, or his deputy, who is to be nominated by the chancellor of the university for the time being. But when his office is called forth into action, such high steward must be approved by the lord high chancellor of England ; and a special commission, under the Great Seal, is given to him and others, to try the indictment then depending, according to the law of the land, and the privileges of the university. When, therefore, an indictment is found at the assizes or elsewhere, against any scholar of the university or other privileged person, the vice-chancellor may claim the cognizance of it (*p*) ; and, (when claimed in due time and manner,) it ought to be allowed him by the judges of assize, and then it comes to be tried in the high steward's court. But the indictment must first be found by a grand jury, and then the cognizance claimed ; for it is apprehended, that the high steward cannot proceed originally *ad inquirendum*, but only, after inquest in the common law courts, *ad audiendum et terminandum*, much in the same way as (we have seen) is the case, when a peer is to be tried in the court of the lord high steward of Great Britain.

When the cognizance is so allowed, if the offence be *inter minora crimina*, or a misdemeanor only, it is tried before the ordinary judge of the chancellor's court ; but if it be for treason, felony, or mayhem, it is then, and then only, to be determined before the high steward, under the king's special commission to try the same. The process of the trial is this. The high steward issues one precept to

(*p*) *R.* v. *Agar* (1772), 5 Burr. 2820 ; *Kendrick* v. *Kynaston* (1764), 1 W. Bl. 454 ; *Hayes* v. *Long* (1766), 2 Wils. 310 ; *Leasingby* v. *Smith* (1769), *ib.* 406 ; *R.* v. *Routledge* (1780), Doug. 531 ; *R.* v. *Grandon* (1775), Cowp. 315 ; *Williams* v. *Brickenden* (1809), 11 East, 543 ; *Ginnett* v. *Whittingham* (1885), 16 Q. B. D. 761.

[the sheriff of the county, who thereupon returns a panel of eighteen freeholders; and another precept to the bedells of the university, who thereupon return a panel of eighteen matriculated laymen, "*laicos privilegio universitatis gaudentes.*" And by a jury formed *de medietate*, half of such freeholders and half of such matriculated persons, the indictment is tried in the Guildhall of the city of Oxford. If execution be necessary, in consequence of finding the party guilty of a capital offence, the sheriff of the county executes the university process; and he is, in fact, annually bound by oath to do so.

These proceedings have been described with some minuteness, on account of the importance of the privilege; but, in modern times, the occasions for putting them in practice have been rare. There are, however, several instances, one in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, two in that of James the First, and two in that of Charles the First, where indictments for murder were challenged by the vice-chancellor at the assizes, and were afterwards tried before the high steward; and the commissioners under the Great Seal, the sheriff's and bedell's panels, and the other proceedings on these indictments, are still extant in the archives of the university.] We may here incidentally observe, that, under a certain charter of Henry the Eighth (confirmed by the 13 Eliz. (1571), c. 29), the chancellor, vice-chancellor, and deputy vice-chancellor of this university, are also justices of the peace for the counties of Oxford and Berks (*q*).

As regards the University of Cambridge, the like privilege of a general criminal jurisdiction appears to have been at one time enjoyed by that university also (*r*); but the privilege of claiming conusance of any action or criminal proceeding wherein any person who is not a member of the university is a party was taken from it by the Cambridge Award Act, 1856, s. 18 (*s*).

(*q*) Oxford University (Justices) Act, 1886.

(*r*) Bac. Abr. tit. *Universities.*

(*s*) 19 & 20 Vict. c. xvii.

In conclusion, regarding these two universities, it may be mentioned, that, under their respective charters, they also exercise, through their respective vice-chancellors and the proctors of the vice-chancellors, a censorial jurisdiction over persons (mostly females of a frivolous and uncertain character) not members of the university, who are found consorting with the students, to the detriment of their own welfare, as also of the morals of the students. Such females have in several cases been sent to the "spinning house," or house of correction, for their amendment (*t*). Which jurisdiction, in the case of the University of Oxford, is now exercised under the Universities Act, 1825 ; by virtue of which statute, these loose females are dealt with as "idle and disorderly persons" within the meaning of the Vagrancy Act, 1824. And in the case of the University of Cambridge also, that mode of exercising the jurisdiction has now been provided, by the Cambridge University and Corporation Act, 1894 ; the proctors and pro-proctors having, for the purposes of arrest, all the powers of ordinary constables.

(*t*) *Kemp* v. *Neville* (1861), 10 C. B. (N.S.) 523 ; and the *Daisy Hopkins Case* (1891), 66 L. T. (N.S.) 53 ; 61 L. J. Q. B. 249.

CHAPTER XI.

OF PROCEEDINGS OF A SUMMARY NATURE, AND HEREIN OF SUMMARY CONVICTIONS AND ATTACHMENT.

[We are next to take into consideration the modes of criminal procedure in the several courts. These are either *summary* or *regular;* and we shall first briefly explain the summary, before we enter on the regular, which latter require a more thorough and particular examination.

By a *summary* proceeding, is meant principally such a proceeding as is directed by Act of Parliament, (for the common law is a stranger to it, unless in the case of contempts,) for the conviction of particular offenders, and for the infliction of the penalties imposed by the Act. In a summary proceeding, there is no jury; but the party accused is either acquitted or condemned, according to the opinion of the particular judge or judges appointed by the Act. An institution which is designed for the greater ease of the subject, by doing the offender speedy justice, and by not harassing the freeholders with frequent attendances to try every minute offence.

I. Of this summary nature are those criminal proceedings which are instituted for frauds against the laws of the Excise and of other branches of the revenue; many of which offences may be inquired into and determined either by the *commissioners of revenue* (*a*), or in the

(*a*) Taxes Management Act, 1880, s. 89, providing that a person commanded by the commissioners to pay tax duties may, *if there be no sufficient distress on his premises*, be committed to prison, without bail, till payment be made, or security for payment given.

[country before *justices of the peace.*] Moreover, the Summary Jurisdiction Acts (presently to be noticed) apply to all informations, complaints, and other proceedings taken, before "a court of summary jurisdiction," under the Post Office, Inland Revenue, or Customs Acts (*b*); and in such cases, where the penalty exceeds 50*l*., the period of imprisonment in respect of non-payment, or in default of a sufficient distress, may exceed three months, but not six months (*c*).

II. Another variety of summary proceedings, are those which take place before the justices in the exercise of their ordinary jurisdiction, in respect of a variety of minor offences which are punishable only with pecuniary penalties. Some of these were formerly punishable at the court leet, while that court was still in use; but the greater part of them have been created, and have been placed under the summary jurisdiction of the justices, by the provisions of modern Acts of Parliament, and are dealt with, under these Acts, by the justices, in accordance with what are known as the "Summary Jurisdiction Acts" (*d*). But, besides these minor offences, there are others of a graver description, which may also now be dealt with by the justices, and for which the punishment is in some cases a pecuniary penalty, and in others is either such a penalty, or else imprisonment with hard labour for a term of six months, or (in the case of a second conviction) twelve months, or (in the case of a third or other subsequent conviction) a longer period. And of these graver offences, we may mention the *abetment* of any offence made punishable by way of summary conviction under the Larceny Act, 1861, and the Malicious Damage Act, 1861 (*e*), the

(*b*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, ss. 20, 50.

(*c*) Sects. 20, 50, 53.

(*d*) These Acts are the Summary Jurisdiction Acts, 1848 and 1879; the Summary Jurisdiction (Process) Act, 1881; and the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1884.

(*e*) See Larceny Act, 1861, s. 99; Malicious Damage Act, 1861, s. 63.

stealing, or killing with intent to steal, of any *bird*, *beast*, or other domestic or confined animal not the subject of larceny at the common law (*f*), the killing or wounding of forest *deer* (*g*), the killing, maiming, or wounding of *dogs* or other animals (not being cattle) which are either the subject of larceny at common law or ordinarily kept confined (*h*), the stealing of (or having in possession stolen) *dogs* (*i*), the stealing of *fences* (*k*), the taking of *fish* (*l*), the killing of *hares* or *rabbits* (*m*), the doing of certain *malicious injuries* to property (*n*), the *receiving* of certain kinds of property knowing it to have been stolen (*o*), the injuring, etc., of *electric or magnetic telegraphs* (*p*), and the injuring or stealing of *trees* (*q*), or *vegetable productions* in gardens (*r*). By the Offences against the Person Act, 1861, s. 42 (*s*), if a person shall unlawfully assault or beat another, two justices of the peace, upon complaint of the party aggrieved, may hear and determine the offence, and may commit the offender to prison, with or without hard labour, for any period not exceeding two months; or else fine him to the extent of 5*l*., and in default of payment, imprison him to the extent above mentioned. And if the assault or battery be on a male child, whose age (in the opinion of the justices) shall not exceed fourteen years, or be upon a female, the punishment inflicted may be imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for as long as six months, or a fine to the extent of 20*l*. (or, in default, imprisonment); and the offender may also be bound over to keep the peace for an additional six months (*t*). But

(*f*) Larceny Act, 1861, ss. 21, 22.

(*g*) *Ibid.* s. 12.

(*h*) Malicious Damage Act, 1861, s. 41.

(*i*) Larceny Act, 1861, ss. 18, 19.

(*k*) Sect. 34.

(*l*) Sect. 24. As to catching fish in public fisheries, by the use of *explosive substances*, see the Fisheries (Dynamite) Act, 1877.

(*m*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 17.

(*n*) Malicious Damage Act, 1861, s. 52.

(*o*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 97.

(*p*) Malicious Damage Act, 1861, ss. 37, 38.

(*q*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 33.

(*r*) Sects. 36, 37.

(*s*) Re-enacting 9 Geo. 4 (1828), c. 31, s. 27, repealed by 24 & 25 Vict. c. 95.

(*t*) Offences against the Person Act, 1861, s. 43.

if, on the hearing of such charge upon the merits, the justices deem the assault or battery not proved, or justifiable, or too trifling to merit punishment, they are to dismiss the complaint, and to give the party charged a certificate of dismissal, which will operate as a bar to any further proceedings, civil or criminal, in respect of the same matter (*u*) ; and, on the other hand, if after investigation they shall find that the assault or battery was accompanied by an attempt *to commit any felony*, or are of opinion that the same is (for any other reason) a fit subject for an indictment, they are to deal with the case as if they had no authority to determine the same. And the justices are not to determine any case in which a question arises as to the title to lands, tenements, or hereditaments, or as to any interest therein, or accruing therefrom (*x*) ; or in which a question arises as to any bankruptcy, or as to any execution under the process of a court of justice (*y*).

The justices, in the exercise of their functions as "a "court of summary jurisdiction," are also enabled, in certain cases, summarily to dispose of charges of larceny and other indictable offences ; their powers in this particular having been largely augmented by the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879 (*z*), which has provided (among other things) as follows :—

(1.) That where a *child* (that is to say, a person who, in the opinion of the court of summary jurisdiction before whom he is brought, is under the age of twelve years) (*a*)

(*u*) Sects. 44, 45 ; *Wilkinson* v. *Dutton* (1863), 3 B. & Sm. 821 ; *Hancock* v. *Somes* (1859), 1 El. & El. 795 ; *Hartley* v. *Hindmarsh* (1866), L. R. 1 C. P. 553 ; *R.* v. *Morris* (1867), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 90.

(*x*) *R.* v. *Pearson* (1870), L. R. 5 Q. B. 237.

(*y*) Offences against the Person Act, 1861, s. 46.

(*z*) This Act repeals the previous enactments on the subject of larcenies, &c., by juvenile offenders and others, which were contained in 10 & 11 Vict. (1847), c. 82 ; 13 & 14 Vict. (1850), c. 37 ; and the Criminal Justice Act, 1855.

(*a*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, s. 49.

is charged with any indictable offence other than homicide, the justices may, if they think it expedient, and the parent or guardian (when informed of his right to have the child tried by a jury) does not object, deal summarily with the offence, and punish it as though it had been tried on indictment ; except that no sentence of penal servitude is to be passed, or imprisonment for more than one month, or fine to a greater amount than forty shillings to be inflicted (*b*), with or without (when the child is a male) a private whipping of not more than six strokes of a birch rod, inflicted by a constable in the presence of a superior officer, and also (if he desires to be present), in the presence of the parent or guardian (*c*) ;

(2.) That where a *young person* (that is to say, a person who, in the opinion of the court, is between the ages of twelve and sixteen) is charged with simple larceny, any offence declared by statute to be punishable as simple larceny, larceny from the person, larceny or embezzlement as a clerk or servant, the guilty reception of stolen goods (*d*), aiding or procuring the commission of any of the above offences, or attempting to commit them, the justices, if they think it expedient, having regard to the character and antecedents of the person charged, the nature of the offence, and all the circumstances of the case, and if (on being informed of his right to be tried by a jury) the offender consents to be dealt with summarily, may so deal with him accordingly ; and if found guilty, may either fine him to the extent of ten pounds, or imprison him, with or without hard labour, to the extent of three months. And (as in the case of a "child") the punishment may be accompanied with whipping inflicted in a similar manner, only that twelve strokes instead of six may be directed to be given (*e*) ;

(*b*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, ss. 10, 15.

(*c*) Sect. 10.

(*d*) Sect. 11 ; First Sched., Column I. ; Larceny Act, 1861, ss. 91, 95.

(*e*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, s. 11.

(3.) That where an *adult* (that is to say, a person who, in the opinion of the court, is of the age of sixteen or upwards) is charged with simple larceny, any offence declared by statute to be punishable as simple larceny, larceny from the person, larceny or embezzlement as a clerk or servant, the guilty reception of stolen goods, aiding or procuring the commission of the above offences, or attempting to commit them, the justices, if in their opinion the value of the property in respect of which the offence is alleged to have been committed *does not exceed forty shillings*, and if they think it expedient under all the circumstances (as in the case of a "young person,") and if the person charged (on being informed of his right to be tried by a jury) *consents* to be summarily dealt with, may deal with him summarily accordingly; and if found guilty, may adjudge him to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any term not exceeding three months, or to pay a fine not exceeding twenty pounds. But the justices are not to exercise this jurisdiction, if the offence is one which (by reason of a previous conviction on indictment) is punishable with penal servitude (*f*); and on the other hand, if they think the charge proved, but in the particular case of so trifling a nature that it is inexpedient to inflict any (or other than a nominal) punishment, they may (without proceeding to conviction) dismiss the information, and yet may order the person charged to pay damages not exceeding forty shillings, and the costs of the proceedings. Or (if they proceed to conviction) they may discharge him without punishment, and either with or without a condition that he is to come up for sentence when called upon, or to be of good behaviour (*g*). Also, in all cases where a court of summary jurisdiction has authority under the provisions of any Act to impose either imprisonment or a fine, such imprisonment may be directed to be without hard labour;

(*f*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, s. 14.

(*g*) Sect. 15.

and the prescribed period thereof, or the prescribed amount of the fine, may be reduced, and recognizances or sureties to keep the peace may be dispensed with. In cases where the only punishment authorized by the Act is imprisonment, the court, if it thinks that the justice of the case will be better met by a fine, may impose a fine not exceeding twenty-five pounds (*h*).

The Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, also contains the following important provisions, namely,—

(1.) That whatever period of imprisonment may be specified in the enactment dealing with any particular offence, the period to which the defendant may under the Summary Jurisdiction Act be sentenced, in default of payment of money ordered to be paid or of a sufficient distress to satisfy the same, may be such as in the opinion of the court will satisfy the justice of the case, but shall not exceed the scale fixed by the Act (*i*); and shall be without hard labour, except where the enactment on which the conviction is founded authorizes hard labour;

(2.) That where any person is adjudged to be imprisoned without the option of a fine, he may appeal to a court of general or quarter sessions, excepting where the imprisonment is for failing to comply with an order to pay money, find sureties, enter into recognizances, or give security (*k*);

(3.) That no case shall be heard, tried, determined, or adjudged by a court of summary jurisdiction, except when sitting in *open court*, that is to say, either in some police station or other occasional court house, or in a "petty "sessional court house," *i.e.*, some place wherein justices are accustomed to assemble for holding special or petty

(*h*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, s. 4.

(*i*) The scale here referred to is, seven days when the sum to be paid does not exceed 10*s.*; fourteen days between 10*s.* and 20*s.*; one month between 20*s.* and 100*s.*; two months between 5*l.* and 20*l.*; and three months over 20*l.* (sect. 5).

(*k*) Sect. 19; Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1884, s. 8.

sessions, or which is appointed as a temporary substitute for such place (*l*) ; and—

(4.) That the Lord Mayor of London, and any alderman thereof, and any metropolitan or borough police magistrate, or any other stipendiary magistrate, when sitting in open court, shall be deemed to be a court of summary jurisdiction sitting as a petty sessional court.

The general course of proceeding before a court of summary jurisdiction is regulated by the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1848, which consolidated and amended the previous provisions on the subject ; and its effect may be shortly stated as follows. Where a written *information* has been laid, before any justice of the peace for any county or place in England or Wales, of any offence committed within his jurisdiction, and made punishable on summary conviction, the justice issues his *summons* to the party charged, requiring him to appear and answer the charge (*m*). If the summons be disobeyed, he then issues a *warrant* to apprehend the party charged, and to bring him before the court ; and the justice may, if the information be supported by the oath of the prosecutor, or (since the Oaths Act, 1888) by his affirmation in lieu of oath, issue a warrant, instead of a summons, in the first instance (*n*). In general every such information must be laid within six calendar months from the time when the matter arose (*o*). The justice may also issue a summons to compel the attendance of witnesses, for the prosecutor or defendant, as the case may be, and (if the summons be disobeyed) may issue his warrant for the same purpose ; or (if satisfied by evidence upon oath that the witness will not attend), he may issue such warrant in the first instance (*p*). The hearing takes place either before one justice or before two or more, according as the particular

(*l*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, s. 20 ; and see the Interpretation Act, 1889, s. 13 (13).

(*m*) 11 & 12 Vict. c. 43, ss. 1, 29.

(*n*) Sects. 2, 3, &c.

(*o*) Sect. 11.

(*p*) Sect. 7.

Act of Parliament directs, and when the Act contains no direction, then before any one justice of the county or place, sitting in open court, the prosecutor conducting the case, and examining and cross-examining the witnesses, by his counsel or solicitor, and the defendant doing the like (*q*). At the commencement of the hearing, the substance of the information is stated to the defendant; who may then show cause why he should not be convicted, or he may then admit the truth of what is charged. But in general the hearing proceeds; the court first hearing the prosecutor and his witnesses, and afterwards the defendant and his witnesses, and hearing also such witnesses as the prosecutor may examine in reply, if the defendant has given any evidence except as to his general character. When the evidence is closed, the court proceeds to convict the defendant, or else to dismiss the information, or to make such order as the case may require (*r*); and the conviction or other order is drawn up in proper form by the clerk of the court, and is registered and kept by him, and is open to inspection (*s*). But, in case the information is dismissed, the clerk of the court draws up and gives to the defendant a certificate of his acquittal (*t*).

The same proceedings take place *mutatis mutandis* (except that the attendance of the defendant cannot be enforced by warrant if the summons be disobeyed), where any written or verbal *complaint* is made to the court, in respect of some matter wherein it has authority to make an order merely for the payment of money.

In all cases brought before them, it is competent for the justices to award costs to either party; and, in the case of an *information*, to enforce payment of such costs, or of any pecuniary penalty, by distress, and in default thereof by imprisonment for a limited period (*u*). But should an

(*q*) Act of 1848, s. 12.
(*r*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, s. 16.
(*s*) Sect. 22.
(*t*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1848, s. 14.
(*u*) *Vide sup.* p. 294, n. (*i*).

order be made for the payment of money recoverable by *complaint* and not by information, it is recoverable only as a civil debt, and can only (in default of distress or otherwise) be enforced by imprisonment after proof given that the party making default has the means to pay, but neglects or refuses to do so (*x*) ; the court of summary jurisdiction having, in such case, only the same power as a county court has under the Debtors Act, 1869.

The court may, from time to time, adjourn the proceedings ; and, in the meantime, may either allow the defendant to go at large, or commit him to prison, or may discharge him on entering into a recognizance, (either with or without sureties,) conditioned for his re-appearance at the adjournment day. This recognizance, if broken, is transmitted to the clerk of the peace to be enforced (*y*).

Such is, in general, the method of summary proceeding before a justice or justices of the peace sitting as a court of summary jurisdiction ; but it is necessary to repeat, that, unless there be some enactment directing or permitting a prosecution in this summary manner, no offence is capable of being so dealt with, but every offender must be proceeded against, either by indictment or by information, in due and regular course of law. Moreover, a summary conviction is not in all cases conclusive, but may be subject to *appeal ;* and, indeed, is always so (with the exception already noticed), where the sentence is imprisonment without the option of a fine (*z*). The appeal is usually to the quarter sessions (*a*) ; and if a question *of law* be involved, the decision of the quarter sessions may, in its turn, be brought under the review of the King's Bench

(*x*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, ss. 6, 35.

(*y*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1848, ss. 16, 29.

(*z*) *Vide sup.* p. 294.

(*a*) The course of procedure on these appeals is mainly regulated by the Quarter Sessions Act, 1849 ; Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, ss. 31, 32 ; Ord. XXXIV. and Ord. LXVIII. r. 2 ; and the Supreme Court (Procedure) Act, 1894, s. 2.

Division of the High Court of Justice. For, by the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, section 33 (*b*), any person aggrieved who desires to question a conviction, order, determination, or other proceeding of a court of summary jurisdiction, on the ground that it is erroneous in point of law, or is in excess of the jurisdiction, may apply to that court, to state a *special case* setting forth the facts of the case and the grounds on which the proceedings are questioned ; and (in case the court declines to state such a case) he may apply to the High Court of Justice, for an order compelling the justices to state a case. By the Review of Justices Decisions Act, 1872, the justices are enabled to file affidavits in the court before which such special case has been brought, in order to put the court in possession of the grounds of their decision, and of any facts which they may consider as having a material bearing on the question at issue ; and this without the necessity of appearing by counsel, and without incurring the expense of any court fee.

III. [A third species of summary proceedings are *Attachments for Contempt*.—The contempts which are thus punished, are either *direct*, which openly insult or resist the court, or the judges who preside there, or *consequential*, which, without openly insulting or resisting, manifestly tend to create an universal disregard of the authority of the court or of the judges. The principal instances of contempts of either sort, that have been usually punished by attachment, are the following (*c*). 1. Those committed by inferior judges and magistrates ; as when they act unjustly, oppressively, or irregularly, in administering those portions of justice which are intrusted

(*b*) Cf. Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1857.

(*c*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 22. See *R.* v. *Almon* (1765), Wilmot's Opinions, 243 ; *In re Read and Huggonson* (1742), 2 Atk. 291, 469 ; *McLeod* v. *St. Aubyn*, [1899] A. C. 549, at p. 551 ; *R.* v. *Gray*, [1900] 2 Q. B. 36.

[to their distribution, or when they disobey the royal writs issued out of the superior courts, *e.g.*, by proceeding in a cause after it is put a stop to or removed, by writ of prohibition, certiorari, error, supersedeas, or the like. For as the superior courts have a general superintendence over all inferior jurisdictions, any corrupt or iniquitous practices of subordinate judges are contempts of that superintending authority, whose duty it is to keep them within the bounds of justice. 2. Those committed by sheriffs, bailiffs, gaolers, and other officials of the court ; as when they abuse the process of the law, or deceive the parties, or do any acts of oppression or extortion, or are guilty of collusive behaviour, or of culpable neglect of duty. 3. Those committed by solicitors as officers of the court ; as when they commit gross frauds on the court, or are guilty of gross injustice to their clients or other dishonest practices. For the malpractices of the officers reflect dishonour on the court itself, and (if left unpunished) create among the people a distrust of the court. 4. Those committed by jurymen in collateral matters relating to the discharge of their office ; as when they make default when summoned, refuse to be sworn, or give any verdict, or eat, or drink, without the leave of the court, and especially at the cost of either party, or are guilty of any other misbehaviour or irregularity of a similar kind. 5. Those committed by witnesses ; as when they make default when summoned, refuse to be sworn or to answer, or prevaricate in their evidence when sworn. 6. Those committed by the parties to any action or proceeding before the court ; as when they disobey any rule or order made in the progress of a cause, or fail to abide by and observe an award duly made a rule of the court, the contempt in such cases being in general consequential or constructive only, and involving in general no actual disregard of authority. 7. Those committed by *any* persons who show any disobedience to the royal writs, or any other disrespect to the court's authority.

[Some of these contempts may arise *in facie curiæ*, that is, in the face of the court, as by rude and contumelious behaviour, by obstinacy, perverseness, or prevarication, or by breach of the peace, or any wilful disturbance whatever. Others arise in the absence of the party ; as by disobeying or treating with disrespect the king's writ, or the rules or process of the court, by perverting such writ or process to the purposes of private malice, extortion, or injustice, by speaking or writing contemptuously of the court, or of the judges acting in their judicial capacity, or by printing false accounts (nay even true ones, if against the prohibition of the court), of causes then depending in judgment (*d*). By anything, in short, that demonstrates a gross want of that regard and respect, which when once courts of justice are deprived of, their authority, (so necessary for the good order of the kingdom,) is entirely lost among the people.

The process of attachment is as antient as the law itself. And this is necessarily so ; for if laws were without a competent authority to secure their administration from contempt, they would be vain and nugatory. A power, therefore, in the supreme courts of justice, to suppress such contempts, by the attachment of the offender, results from the first principles of a judiciary, and must be an inseparable attendant upon every superior tribunal (*e*) ; and accordingly, we find, that the jurisdiction to attach for contempt has in fact been exercised, as early as the annals of our law extend. And, though a learned author inclines to derive this process from the Statute of Westminster the Second, (13 Edward I. (1285)) c. 39, which ordains, that, in case the process of the king's court be *resisted* by the power

(*d*) *R.* v. *Clement* (1821), 4 B. & Ald. 218; *Lechmere Charlton's Case* (1836), 2 My. & C. 316; *In re Pollard* (1868), L. R. 2 P. C. 106; *Onslow's and Whalley's Case* (1873), L. R. 9 Q. B. 219; *Skipworth's and Orton's Case* (1873), *id.* 219.

(*e*) The power of *inferior* courts to commit for contempt, is confined to contempts committed *in facie curiæ;* and it is also limited by the statutes under which the court is created. (*R.* v. *Lefroy* (1873), L. R. 8 Q. B. 134 ; County Courts Act, 1888, s. 162.)

[of any great man, the sheriff shall chastise the resisters by imprisonment ; and that if the sheriff himself be resisted, he shall certify to the courts the names of the principal offenders, their aiders, consenters, commanders, and favourers, and by a special writ judicial they shall be *attached* by their bodies to appear before the court, and that if they be convicted thereof they shall be punished at the king's pleasure, without any interfering by any other person whatsoever—yet he afterwards more justly concludes, that it is a part of the *law of the land*, and as such is merely *confirmed* by the statute of *Magna Carta* (*f*).

If the contempt be committed in the face of the court, the offender may be instantly apprehended, and imprisoned at the discretion of the judge (*g*), being first given an opportunity of explaining (*h*). But in matters that arise at a distance, and of which the court cannot have so perfect a knowledge, unless by the confession of the party or the testimony of others, if the judges, upon *affidavit*, found that an actual contempt had been committed, they used to make a rule on the suspected party, to show cause why an attachment should not issue against him (*i*) ; while, in very flagrant instances of contempt, the attachment might have issued in the first instance (*k*).] But the application for an attachment or committal is now (unless in the most exceptional cases) always made on previous written notice of motion to the party (*l*) ; and the whole matter is determined on the argument of the motion.

[Under the former practice (which might possibly, under circumstances of exceptional gravity, still be resorted to), the process of attachment was intended to bring the party into court ; and when there, he must either have stood committed, or have put in bail to answer upon oath such

(*f*) Gilb. *Hist. C. P.* ch. 3.

(*g*) Staundf. P. C. 73.

(*h*) *In re Pollard* (1868), L. R. 2 P. C. 106.

(*i*) Styl. 277.

(*k*) *Anon.* (1711) Salk. 84 ; *R.* v. *Jones* (1718), 1 Stra. 185 ; *R.* v. *Chancellor, Masters, and Scholars of Cambridge* (1722), *id.* 557, at p. 564.

(*l*) Ord. XLIV. r. 2 ; *Eynde* v. *Gould* (1882), 9 Q. B. D. 335.

[*interrogatories* as should be administered to him, for the better information of the court with respect to the circumstances of the contempt (*m*). These interrogatories were in the nature of a charge or accusation, and must, by the course of the court, have been exhibited within four days (*n*); and if any of the interrogatories were improper, the defendant might refuse to answer them, and might move the court to have them struck out (*o*). If the party could clear himself upon oath, he was discharged; but, if perjured, he might be afterwards prosecuted for the perjury (*p*). On the other hand, if he confessed the contempt, the court proceeded to correct him, usually by fine or by imprisonment, or by both (*q*). Or, again, if the contempt was of such a nature, that, when the fact was once acknowledged, the court could receive no further information, by interrogatories, than it already possessed, the defendant might be admitted to make a simple acknowledgment of the contempt committed, and would thereupon receive his judgment, without answering to any interrogatories. And if, where interrogatories were administered to him, he wilfully and obstinately refused to answer, or answered in an evasive manner, he was then clearly guilty of a high and repeated contempt, to be punished at the discretion of the court (*r*).] The law is, in substance, still the same, though rarely put in motion; nor is a peer of parliament exempt from attachment (*s*), nor a member of the house of commons (*t*).

(*m*) *R.* v. *Hemsworth* (1846), 3 C. B. 745.

(*n*) *Saunders* v. *Melhuish* (1703), 6 Mod. 73.

(*o*) *R.* v. *Barber* (1720), 1 Stra. 444.

(*p*) *Saunders* v. *Melhuish*, *ubi sup.*

(*q*) *R.* v. *Hemsworth* (1846), 3 C. B. 745; and as to the form of the warrant of commitment, see *In re Fernandes* (1861), 6 H. & N. 717.

(*r*) *R.* v. *Elkins* (1767), 4 Burr. 2129; *In re Pollard*, *sup.*

(*s*) *R.* v. *Earl Ferrers* (1758), 1 Burr. 631; Lords' Journals, 7th Feb., 8th June, 1757.

(*t*) *Gent-Davis* v. *Harris* (1888), 40 Ch. D. 190.

CHAPTER XII.

OF ARRESTS ON CRIMINAL CHARGES.

We are now to consider the REGULAR and ordinary mode of proceeding in courts of criminal jurisdiction, which is in general the mode of procedure whenever the offence charged amounts to felony or to an indictable misdemeanor. There are eleven general heads or branches of this procedure to be treated of, namely,—1. Arrest ; 2. Commitment and bail ; 3. Prosecution ; 4. Process ; 5. Arraignment ; 6. Plea and issue ; 7. Trial, and conviction ; 8. Judgment ; 9. Reversal of judgment ; 10. Reprieve, or pardon ; and 11. Execution. We shall devote a separate chapter to each of these eleven heads, beginning with *arrests*.

An ARREST is the apprehending or restraining of the person of a man, in order that he shall be forthcoming to answer an alleged or suspected crime ; all persons whomsoever being, without distinction, equally liable to this arrest. Such arrest may be either *with* warrant or *without* warrant, according to the following distinctions :—

First, *A Warrant* may be granted, in the case of treason or other like offence, by the privy council, or by one of the secretaries of state (*a*) : but a *general* warrant, naming no person in particular, would be bad (*b*), even although issued by a secretary of state. But more usually, and in

(*a*) 1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 34, 107 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 16 ; 4 Bl. Com. 290 ; *R.* v. *Kendal and Row* (1695), 1 Ld. Raym. 65 ; *R.* v. *Wilkes* (1763), 2 Wils. 151 ; *R.* v. *Despard* (1798), 7 T. R. 736 ; cf. 28 St. Tr. 345.

(*b*) *Money* v. *Leach* (1765), 1 W. Bl. 555.

the case of any person charged with felony, a warrant for his arrest may be granted by any judge of the King's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice (*c*); and, under the Bail Bonds Act, 1808, making general the provisions contained in the 26 Geo. III. (1786), c. 77 and 35 Geo. III. (1794), c. 46, any such judge may grant the warrant against a person charged with any offence which may be prosecuted by indictment or information, on his being satisfied that an indictment has been found or information filed, in order that the person charged may be held to bail or committed for trial. The like power is exercised, both at the assizes and at sessions, upon indictments either for felony or misdemeanor found thereat respectively (*d*). But in the ordinary case, the warrant is issued by a justice of the peace out of sessions, under the Indictable Offences Act, 1848 (*e*). By this Act (which is a consolidating Act), it is provided, in substance, that in all cases where a charge, or complaint, is made before one or more justices of the peace, alleging that any person has committed, or is suspected to have committed, any treason or other felony, or any indictable misdemeanor or offence whatsoever, within his or their jurisdiction, or within the jurisdiction of the admiralty, or that any person who has committed, or is suspected to have committed, such offence out of his or their jurisdiction, resides, or is suspected to reside or be, within the same, then, (if the party is not already in custody,) such justice or justices may issue, to the constable or other peace officer of the county or place, a *warrant* for his apprehension (*f*), and may cause him to be brought before him or them, or some other justice or justices of the same county or place, to answer the charge or complaint, and to be dealt with according to law; or he

(*c*) 1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 36.

(*d*) *Ibid.* 339.

(*e*) The Indictable Offences Act, 1848, does not alter or affect any of the antecedent provisions contained in the Metropolitan Police Acts, or in the London Police Acts (sect. 29).

(*f*) Indictable Offences Act, 1848, ss. 1, 2.

or they may (at their discretion) issue a *summons*, in the first instance, and forbear to proceed by warrant until the summons has been disobeyed. But herein there is this distinction, namely, that where a warrant in the first instance is applied for, it must be grounded on an *information* or *complaint*, in writing and upon oath, or (since the Oaths Act, 1888) upon affirmation in lieu of oath; but where only a summons is required, the information or complaint may be by parol and unsworn. The form of the warrant is prescribed by the statute itself; and a warrant properly penned, even though the magistrate who issues it should exceed his jurisdiction, and so render himself liable to an action, will, by the Constables Protection Act, 1750, at all events indemnify the officer who executes the same ministerially. When the warrant is received by the officer, he is bound to execute it in any place to which the jurisdiction of the magistrate and himself extends; and he may break open doors, in order to execute it, in case of treason, felony, or other indictable offence (*g*), provided that, on demand, admittance cannot otherwise be obtained (*h*). Nor is there any immunity from arrest, in cases of the description just mentioned, even in the night-time, or on a Sunday (*i*). A justice of the peace may also issue a warrant, not only to apprehend a person suspected of felony, but to search his premises for stolen goods (*k*); and, by the Larceny Act, 1861, section 103, if any credible witness shall, upon oath, prove before the justice a reasonable cause to suspect (*l*) that any person has in his possession, or on his premises, any property whatever, in respect of which any offence punishable under that Act shall have been committed, the justice may grant a warrant

(*g*) *Rawlins* v. *Ellis* (1846), 16 M. & W. 172.

(*h*) 1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 49.

(*i*) Sunday Observance Act, 1677, s. 6; *Rawlins* v. *Ellis*, *ubi sup.*

(*k*) Indictable Offences Act, 1848, s. 4.

(*l*) *Jones* v. *German*, [1897] 1 Q. B. 374.

to search for such property, as in the case of stolen goods; and any person to whom any such property is offered to be sold, pawned, or delivered, is required to apprehend and carry before a justice of the peace the person offering the same, together with such property (*m*).

A warrant from any judge of the King's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice, extends all over the kingdom, and is *tested*, or dated, *England*, and not *Oxfordshire*, *Berks*, or any other particular county ; but a warrant of a justice of the peace in one county, as Yorkshire, must be *backed*, that is indorsed, by a justice of the peace in another, as Middlesex, before it can be executed in the latter county (*n*). Formerly, there ought, regularly speaking, to have been a fresh warrant in every fresh county. But the practice of backing warrants had long prevailed, and was at last authorized by statute, the most recent statutes being the Indictable Offences Act, 1848, and the Criminal Justice Administration Act, 1851, section 18, by which also a warrant issued in England or Wales may be backed even in Scotland, Ireland, or the Channel Islands, and *vice versâ ;* and the like provisions apply to process issued under the Summary Jurisdiction Acts referred to in the last chapter (*o*). Also, by the Fugitive Offenders Act, 1881, provision has been made for the apprehension, in the United Kingdom, of persons committing treason and felony in any of his Majesty's dominions *out* of the United Kingdom, and *vice versâ ;* and, by the Extradition Act, 1870, and the Extradition Act, 1873 (*p*), where any foreign State has entered into an extradition treaty with this country, a fugitive criminal

(*m*) Some special provisions for the search for stolen property will also be found in the Pawnbrokers Act, 1872, as to which, *vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 111, 112.

(*n*) 4 Bl. Com. 288.

(*o*) Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1848, s. 3 ; Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879 ; and Summary Jurisdiction (Process) Act, 1881.

(*p*) Under the Extradition Act, 1895, provision is made for such criminals, when suffering from any sickness which renders their ordinary treatment dangerous to their lives.

(not being a *political* refugee) (*q*) may be surrendered. Such treaties have been now made with almost every civilised country in the world (*r*).

Secondly, [*arrest without a warrant* may be made in the following cases :—(1) by a justice of the peace, who may himself apprehend, or cause to be apprehended, by word only, any person committing a felony or breach of the peace in his presence (*s*) ; (2) by the sheriff ; (3) by the coroner, who may so apprehend any felon within the county (*t*) ; and (4) by the constable (or peace officer), of whose office we formerly spoke, and who hath great original and inherent authority with regard to arrests (*u*). For he may, without warrant, arrest any one for a treason, felony, or breach of the peace committed in his view, and carry him before a justice of the peace.] So, upon a reasonable charge of treason or of felony, or of a dangerous wounding, whereby felony is likely to ensue, or upon his own reasonable suspicion that any of such offences have been committed, the constable may, without warrant, arrest the party so charged or suspected ; and he will (in case of felony, though not, unless protected by statute, in case of misdemeanor) be justified in doing so, though it should afterwards turn out that the party is innocent, or even that no such offence as was supposed has been in fact committed (*x*). And in such cases as these, he is also authorized, as well as upon a justice's warrant, to break open doors. Moreover, under the pro-

(*q*) *In re Arton*, [1896] 1 Q. B. 108, 509 ; *In re Castioni*, [1891] 1 Q. B. 149.

(*r*) *In re Counhaye* (1873), L. R. 8 Q. B. 410 ; *R.* v. *Wilson* (1877), 3 Q. B. D. 42 ; *R.* v. *Ganz* (1882), 9 Q. B. D. 93 ; *R.* v. *Weil* (1882), *ib.* 701 ; *In re Galwey*, [1896] 1 Q. B. 230.

(*s*) 1 Hale, P. C. 86.

(*t*) Jervis, *Coroners*, 21.

(*u*) *Vide sup.* vol. II. pp. 622 *et seq.*

(*x*) *Davis* v. *Russell* (1829), 5 Bing. 354 ; *Fox* v. *Gaunt* (1832), 3 B. & Ad. 798 ; *Hogg* v. *Ward* (1858), 3 H. & N. 417 ; *Griffin* v. *Coleman* (1859), 4 H. & N. 265 ; *Gaillard* v. *Laxton* (1862), 2 B. & Sm. 363 ; *Hatton* v. *Treeby*, [1897] 2 Q. B. 452.

visions of the Malicious Damage Act, 1861, and the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, a constable may take into custody, without a warrant, any person whom he shall find lying or loitering in any highway, yard, or other place, during the night, and whom he shall have good cause to suspect of having committed, *or of being about to commit*, any of the various felonies provided against by either of those Acts ; taking such person, as soon as reasonably may be, before a justice of the peace, to be dealt with according to law. And under the Metropolitan Police Acts, 1829 to 1895, and within the metropolitan police district (which embraces the whole county of Middlesex, and all other parishes or places within fifteen miles of Charing-cross, with the exception of the city of London, which maintains a separate police establishment), a constable may take into custody, without warrant, any person whom he may find, between sunset and the hour of eight in the morning, loitering or lying about and unable to give a satisfactory account of himself, or any person charged with aggravated assault, or any person whose address cannot be ascertained, whom he shall find offending against any of the provisions of these Acts. By the Penal Servitude Act, 1864, section 6, a constable may also arrest any person who, having been sentenced to penal servitude, holds a licence to be at large, and is reasonably suspected by him to have committed any offence, or broken any of the conditions of his licence. Finally, by the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, he is enabled thus to arrest (if authorized by the chief police officer of his district) any person whom he has reasonable grounds for believing to be getting his livelihood by dishonest means; or (even without such special authority) who is found in any place, public or private, under circumstances that show that he is about to commit, or is waiting for an opportunity to commit, some offence, or who is found in any house, or in certain other situations specified

in the Act, without being able to account satisfactorily for his being there (*y*).

Again, there are cases in which, either at common law, or else by the provisions of some statute, arrests without warrant are justifiable, whether the arrester be a peace officer or not. Among these it may be instanced (for a complete enumeration would be beyond our limits) that any private person, *who is present when any felony is committed*, is bound by the law to arrest the felon, on pain of fine and imprisonment if he negligently permit him to escape (*z*). So, any person may apprehend another, whom he shall find committing *any* indictable offence, by *night* (*a*), or whom he finds committing any of the larcenies and similar offences punishable under the Larceny Act, 1861, except only the offence of angling in the day-time; and he may carry such offender, and the property (if any) found on him, to a neighbouring justice, by him to be dealt with according to law. Again, by the Malicious Damage Act, 1861, section 61, any person found committing any malicious injury or other offence against that Act may be immediately apprehended, and carried to a justice, without warrant, either by a peace officer, or by the owner of the property injured, or his servant, or other person authorized by the owner; and by the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, section 7, any person twice convicted already, who is found in or upon any dwelling-house, or yard, parcel of such dwelling-house, and unable to give a satisfactory account of his being there, may be summarily arrested in like manner. Again, by the Coinage Offences Act, 1861, section 31, any person may apprehend any one whom he shall find committing any offence relating to the coin, or other offence against that

(*y*) Sect. 7, amended by the Prevention of Crimes Amendment Act, 1885.

(*z*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 12.

(*a*) Prevention of Offences Act, 1851, s. 11; *Downing* v. *Capel* (1867), L. R. 2 C. P. 461; *R.* v. *Phelps* (1841), Car. & M. 180.

Act, and deliver him up to some peace officer. Moreover, by the common law, any person (whether a peace officer or not) may, without warrant, in the case of a felony actually committed in his presence, not only justify breaking open doors in pursuit of the offender, but may also arrest any one *on probable suspicion* of such felony (*b*) ; but there is this distinction between the case of the peace officer and that of a private person, namely, that the former is protected though it should turn out that no such felony had been in fact committed by any one, (provided he can show that he had reasonable ground for suspecting the party arrested (*c*),) while the latter acts more at his peril, and is not protected, unless he can prove the actual commission of the crime by *some one*, as well as a reasonable ground for suspecting the particular person (*d*). And a private person cannot, on mere suspicion, justify breaking open doors ; which a constable may, as we have seen, do, even without a warrant (*e*).

[There is yet another species of arrest without warrant, and that is upon a *hue* and *cry* raised upon felony committed (*f*) ; and this is so, although the statutes of hue and cry (*g*) have been repealed (*h*). A hue is so called from *huer*, to shout; and a hue and cry (*hutesium et clamor*) is the old common law process of pursuing, with horn and with voice, all felons, and such as have dangerously wounded another ; and in a hue and cry, the constable, or peace officer, has the same powers, protection, and indemnification, as if acting under a warrant of a justice of the peace.] Indeed, all those who join in following upon a hue and cry that has been raised, and that whether

(*b*) 2 Hale, P. C. 78.

(*c*) *Allen* v. *L. & S. W. Rail. Co.* (1870), L. R. 6 Q. B. 65 ; 40 L. J. Q. B. 55.

(*d*) Fost. 318 ; *Beckwith* v. *Philby* (1827), 6 B. & C. 635 ; *Williams* v. *Crossweil* (1846), 2 Car. & K. 422.

(*e*) 4 Bl. Com. 290 ; *Smith* v. *Shirley* (1846), 3 C. B. 142.

(*f*) 2 Hale, P. C. 100 *et seq.*

(*g*) 13 Edw. 1 (1285), st. 2, cc. 1, 4 ; 27 Eliz. (1584), c. 13 ; 8 Geo. 2 (1734), c. 16.

(*h*) 7 & 8 Geo. 4 (1827), c. 27.

a constable be present or not, will be justified in their apprehension of the party pursued, even though it should ultimately turn out that he is innocent, or that no felony has been committed (*i*) ; and, where the party pursued has taken refuge in a house, may break open the door to secure him, if admittance be refused (*k*). But if a man wantonly or maliciously raise a hue and cry without cause, he is liable to fine and imprisonment (*l*), and also to an action for damages at the suit of the party aggrieved.

In order to encourage the apprehension of offenders in certain cases, it is provided by the Criminal Law Act, 1826, section 28, in the place of previous enactments of a similar kind, that when a person shall appear to a court of oyer and terminer, or gaol delivery, to have been active in or towards the apprehension of one charged either with murder, or with a felonious and malicious shooting, or with an attempt to discharge loaded fire-arms at another person, or with stabbing, cutting, or poisoning, or with administering anything to procure the miscarriage of a woman, or with rape, burglary, or felonious housebreaking, or with robbery from the person, or with arson, or with horse-, bullock-, or sheep-stealing, or with being accessory, before the fact, to any of the offences above enumerated, or with receiving any stolen property knowing the same to have been stolen,—the court may order the sheriff of the county to pay to such person such a sum of money as shall seem a reasonable and sufficient compensation for his or her expenses, exertion, and loss of time ; but this power is to be exercised subject to such regulations, as to the rate of allowance, as shall be made from time to time by a secretary of state. By the Criminal Justice Administration Act, 1851, section 8, the like power of ordering compensation (to an amount not exceeding 5*l*.) is con-

(*i*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 12, s. 16.

(*k*) 2 Hale, P. C. 102.

(*l*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 12, s. 16.

ferred on every court of sessions of the peace, with reference to such of the above-mentioned offences as they have jurisdiction to try; and, by the Central Criminal Court Act, 1856, section 13, the like power (without the limit above specified) is conferred on the Central Criminal Court, with reference to any of the same offences that are removed into that court for trial. Moreover, compensation may, in certain cases, be awarded to the families of persons killed in their attempt to apprehend persons charged with certain offences, to wit, the offences in this behalf specified in the Criminal Law Act, 1826, above-mentioned. And the High Court has also a general power to order any reasonable payment to be made to any person who shall have shown extraordinary courage, diligence, or exertion in the apprehension of offenders; and such power is no way affected or interfered with by the Criminal Justice Administration Act, 1851, or by the limit thereby prescribed for the compensation thereby provided for.

CHAPTER XIII.

OF COMMITMENT AND BAIL.

When a delinquent has been arrested by any of the means mentioned in the preceding chapter, he should be carried as soon as possible before a magistrate ; and the magistrate is to examine into the circumstances of the crime alleged, and may then either discharge the offender, or else may either *commit* him to take his trial or admit him to *bail*. And as regards any one charged with any indictable offence, who is brought up on a warrant, or who attends before the court voluntarily or in obedience to a summons, the following provisions have been made by the Indictable Offences Act, 1848, and the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867 ("Russell Gurney's Act"). The magistrate shall take, in the presence of the accused, who shall be at liberty to put questions by way of cross-examination to any witness produced against him (*a*), the statement (on oath or affirmation) of those who know the facts of the case ; and he is to put the statement into writing (*b*), the examination not requiring to be in open court or otherwise public (*c*). After the examinations of all the witnesses on the part of the prosecution (or *depositions* as they are called) have been taken, and signed by the witnesses respectively, as well as by the examining magistrate, they are to be read over to the accused ; and he is to be asked if he wishes to say anything in answer to the charge, being at the same time

(*a*) *R.* v. *Townsend* (1866), 4 F. & F. 1089 ; 10 Cox C. C. 356 ; *R.* v. *Carden* (1879), 5 Q. B. D. 1.

(*b*) Indictable Offences Act, 1848, s. 17.

(*c*) Sect. 19.

cautioned, that he has nothing to hope from any promise or to fear from any threat, and that anything he may then say may be read in evidence against him upon his trial. The statutes proceed to direct, that whatever the accused person shall, after the above caution, say in answer to the charge, shall also be taken down in writing, and shall be read over to him, and then signed by the magistrate (*d*). The accused is then forthwith to be asked, whether he desires to call witnesses ; and, in that case, the statutes provide, that the justice or justices shall, in the presence of the accused, take the statement on oath or affirmation, both by way of examination and cross-examination, of those who shall be so called by him, including the accused himself, if he elects to give evidence (*e*), and shall put the same into writing (*f*). In order to complete the evidence, the accused may be, from time to time, remanded, with or without bail. And once all the evidence has been taken, the justice or justices, if they are of opinion that it is not sufficient to put him upon his trial, may forthwith order him to be discharged ; but, if the evidence raises a probable presumption of guilt, they are either to commit him to prison to take his trial, or to admit him to bail, that is, to allow him to be discharged, on entering into a recognizance (with some sufficient surety or sureties) to appear and surrender himself to custody, and to take his trial on such indictment as may be found against him, in respect of the charge in question, at the next assizes or sessions of the peace, and occasionally the sureties may be dispensed with (*g*). But the justices have no power to admit to bail any person charged with *treason ;* nor may bail, in that case, be allowed except by order of a secretary of state, or

(*d*) Indictable Offences Act, 1848, s. 18 ; *R.* v. *Stripp* (1856), 1 Dears. C. C. 648.

(*e*) Criminal Evidence Act, 1898.

(*f*) Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867, s. 3.

(*g*) Bail Act, 1898.

of the King's Bench Division of the High Court, or by a judge thereof in vacation. On the other hand, the justices are bound to admit to bail in all cases of misdemeanor, except such as are expressly excepted in the Indictable Offences Act, 1848. And, as to all felonies (treason excepted), and all the excepted misdemeanors (*h*), the justices have a discretionary power either to admit to bail or to commit to prison.

[For a magistrate to refuse or delay to bail a person bailable, is an offence against the liberty of the subject by the common law (*i*), as well as by the statute of Westminster the First (3 Edw. I.), c. 15, and the Habeas Corpus Acts, 1679 and 1816. And lest the intention of the law in this matter should be frustrated, by the justice requiring bail to a greater amount than the nature of the case demands, it was expressly declared, by the Bill of Rights, that excessive bail ought not to be required ; though what bail shall be called excessive must be left to the courts, on considering the circumstances of the case, to determine. On the other hand, if the magistrate take insufficient bail, he is liable to be fined, if the criminal doth not appear (*k*).]

Such, as the law now stands, is the power of the justices of the peace in bailing prisoners brought before them ; and stipendiary magistrates and the metropolitan police magis-

(*h*) The excepted misdemeanors are—assault with intent to commit felony ; obtaining or attempting to obtain property by false pretences ; receiving property stolen or obtained by false pretences ; perjury or subornation of perjury ; concealing the birth of a child by secret burying or otherwise ; wilful and indecent exposure of the person ; riot ; assault in pursuance of a conspiracy to raise wages ; assault upon a police officer in the execution of his duty, or upon any person acting in his aid ; neglect or breach of duty as a peace officer ; and any misdemeanor, for the prosecution of which costs may be allowed out of the county rate.

(*i*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 15, s. 13 ; *R.* v. *Badger* (1843), 4 Q. B. 468 ; *Linford* v. *Fitzroy* (1849), 13 Q. B. 240.

(*k*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 15, s. 6 ; Criminal Law Act, 1826, ss. 5, 6 ; *R.* v. *Saunders* (1847), 2 Cox C. C. 249.

trates have substantially the like power (*l*), as have also coroners (*m*), each of them in respect of inquiries proceeding before themselves respectively. Moreover, in the matter of bail, the King's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice (or a judge thereof) exercises a paramount jurisdiction, having authority to bail, not only in cases where the charge is originally before them, but also in cases where it is brought before justices of the peace, and bail is there refused ; [nor is there any limit whatever to the power of the High Court in this particular (*n*), which may bail for any crime whatsoever, be it treason (*o*), murder (*p*), or any other offence, according to the circumstances of the case.] It is not usual, however, either for a judge or for magistrates, to admit to bail in the case of a serious felony, except under circumstances of a special character (*q*).

Supposing no bail to be allowed, or none to be found by the accused, he is then to be committed to prison, by warrant of the examining magistrate, to be there safely kept until delivered in due course of law (*r*). [But this imprisonment is only for safe custody, and not for punishment ; and therefore, in this dubious interval between commitment and trial, a prisoner ought to be treated with the utmost humanity.] By the Prison Act, 1865, section 32,

(*l*) Metropolitan Police Courts Act, 1839, s. 36.

(*m*) Coroners Act, 1887, s. 5.

(*n*) 2 Inst. 189 ; Latch, 12 ; Vaug. 157 ; Comb. 111, 298 ; 1 Com. Dig. 493.

(*o*) In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, however, it was the unanimous opinion of the judges, that no court could bail a person committed, on a charge of high treason, by any of the privy council. (1 And. 298.)

(*p*) Anciently, felonious homicide seems to have been an exception. "*In omnibus placitis de* "*felonià solet accusatus per plegios* "*dimitti, præterquam in placito* "*de homicidio.*" (Glan. l. 14, c. 1.) "*Sciendum tamen quod, in* "*hoc placito, non solet accusatus* "*per plegios dimitti, nisi ex regiæ* "*potestatis beneficio.*" (*Ibid.* c. 3.)

(*q*) *Barronet's case* (1852), 1 Dears. C. C. 51.

(*r*) Indictable Offences Act, 1848, s. 25 ; Prison Act, 1865, s. 56.

prisoners before trial, though they have the option of employment, may not be compelled to perform any hard labour (*s*) ; and by the Prison Act, 1877, section 39, in every place in which prisoners are confined for safe custody only, special rules are in force regulating their confinement in such manner as to make it as little oppressive as possible, due regard only being had to the safe custody of the accused, to the necessity of preserving good order and good government in the prison, and to the physical and moral well-being of the prisoners themselves. Such special rules provide also regarding the retention of books, papers, or documents in the prisoner's possession at the time of his arrest, communications between him and his solicitor or other friends, and arrangements with regard to his providing himself with diet, or being furnished with wholesome food ; and they protect him from being called upon to perform unaccustomed tasks or offices (*t*).

Moreover, whether he is bailed or committed, the accused is entitled to demand, from the person having the custody of the same, copies of the depositions on which he shall have been bailed or committed, upon payment for them at a reasonable and prescribed rate (*u*) ; and the justice or justices are empowered, in either case, to bind over by recognizance the prosecutor and witnesses to appear at the next assizes or sessions of the peace at which the accused is to be tried, then and there to prosecute or to give evidence. And the several recognizances so taken, together with the written information (if any), the

(*s*) If the prisoner elect to be employed, and is afterwards acquitted, or no indictment is found against him, a reasonable allowance may be made to him on account of such his earnings (sect. 33).

(*t*) For prisoners who have been convicted, but whose sentence does not extend to penal servitude or hard labour, a differential treatment has been provided by the Prison Act, 1898.

(*u*) Indictable Offences Act, 1848, s. 27 ; Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867, s. 4 ; *R.* v. *Lord Mayor of London* (1844), 5 Q. B. 555 ; *R.* v. *Davies and others* (1850), 1 L. M. & P. 323.

depositions, and the statement of the accused (if any), must be delivered to the proper officer at such assizes or sessions, before or at the opening of the court, on the first day of its sitting (*x*). These observations apply also, *mutatis mutandis*, to prosecutions at the Central Criminal Court which have been removed into that court under the Central Criminal Court Act, 1856, as amended by the Jurisdiction in Homicides Act, 1862.

(*x*) Indictable Offences Act, 1848, s. 20; Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867, s. 3.

CHAPTER XIV.

OF THE SEVERAL MODES OF PROSECUTION.

[THE next step towards the punishment of offenders is their formal accusation. And this may be either by *presentment*, or *indictment* of a grand jury, or by *information*.

I. A *Presentment*, properly speaking, is the notice taken by a grand jury of any matter, of their own knowledge or observation, without any bill of indictment laid before them at the suit of the Crown (*a*), *e.g.*, the presentment by them of a nuisance, a libel, and the like ; upon which presentment, the officer of the court must afterwards frame an indictment, before the party presented can be put to answer it (*b*). But the term "presentment" also includes inquisitions and (in particular) "inquisitions "of office" ; which latter are the inquests of a jury, summoned by the proper officer, to inquire of matters relating to the Crown, upon evidence laid before them. Inquisitions may, in general, be afterwards traversed and examined (*c*), particularly the coroner's inquisition of the death of a man, when it finds any one guilty of homicide (*d*) ; for, in such cases, the offender so presented

(*a*) Lamb. *Eirenarcha*, l. 4, c. 5.

(*b*) 2 Inst. 739.

(*c*) But an inquisition of *felo de se*, or of *flight* in felony, cannot be traversed ; nor presentments of petty offences in the *leet ;* nor could presentments of such petty offences in the *tourn*, or inquisitions of *deodands*, be traversed (4 Bl. Com. 299).

(*d*) In cases of homicide, the person accused may also be committed and tried on a *coroner's inquisition* (as to which *vide sup.* vol. II. p. 611) ; but it is the common practice to take a prisoner committed by the coroner before a magistrate.

[must be arraigned upon this inquisition, and may dispute the truth of it, which brings it to a kind of indictment, the most usual and effectual means of prosecution, and into which we will therefore inquire more minutely.

II. An *Indictment* is a written accusation that one or more persons have committed a certain felony or misdemeanor, presented to the court upon oath by a grand jury. To this end, the sheriff of every county is directed, by precept issued for the purpose, to return to every session of the peace, and to every commission of oyer and terminer and of general gaol delivery, twenty-four good and loyal men of the county, that they may inquire into, present, do, and execute all those things which, on the part of our lord the king, shall then and there be commanded them (*e*). At the sessions of the peace, the qualification of the grand jurors is the same as that required, for petty jurors, in the trial of civil causes at the assizes or *nisi prius;* but the qualification for grand jurors at the assizes is not absolutely defined by law. They ought, indeed, to be freeholders, but to what amount is uncertain (*f*); they are usually gentlemen of the best figure in the county (*g*), and as many as appear upon the panel returned are (being first sworn or duly affirming) placed upon the grand jury, to the amount of twelve at the least, and not more than twenty-three, that twelve may be a majority (*h*).] The institution of the grand jury is now generally attributed to the time of Henry the Second, who, by the Assize of Clarendon, in 1166, required that in each county twelve lawful men of each hundred, and four from each township, should answer on oath as to robberies, murders, and thefts committed within their respective hundreds. This number was probably found too large and inconvenient; but the traces of the institution long remained, for, until dispensed

(*e*) 2 Hale, P. C. 154.
(*f*) *Ibid.* 155.
(*g*) 1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 238.
(*h*) *R.* v. *Marsh* (1837), 6 A. & E. 236.

with by the Juries Act, 1825, section 13, it was held to be necessary that some of the jury should be summoned out of every hundred (*i*). [The grand jury are previously *charged* by the judge who presides upon the bench,—*i.e.*, are instructed by him as to the subject-matters of their inquiry ; they then withdraw to sit and receive indictments, which are preferred to them in the name of the king, but at the suit of some private prosecutor. And they only hear the testimony of such witnesses as shall appear on behalf of the prosecution (*k*) ; for the finding of an indictment by the grand jury is only in the nature of an inquiry or accusation, which is afterwards to be tried and determined. And the grand jury are only to inquire, whether there be sufficient cause to call upon the party accused to answer it (*l*). A grand jury, however, ought to be thoroughly convinced of the truth of an indictment, so far as their evidence goes, and not to rest satisfied merely with remote probabilities,—a doctrine that might be applied to very oppressive purposes.] By way of further protection against vexatious prosecutions, it has been provided, by the Vexatious Indictments Act, 1859, c. 17 (amended by Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867, section 1 (*m*)), that no bill of indictment shall be presented to the grand jury, or shall be found by them, for offences of a certain descrip-

(*i*) 2 Hale, P. C. 154; 4 Bl. Com. 300.

(*k*) Grand Juries Act, 1856; *R.* v. *Russell* (1842), Car. & M. 247. It has been held that the Criminal Evidence Act, 1898, does not allow a person charged with an offence to give evidence on his own behalf before the grand jury (*R.* v. *Rhodes*, [1899] 1 Q. B. 77 ; *R.* v. *Saunders*, *id.* 490).

(*l*) Upon an indictment for high treason against the Earl of Shaftesbury, in the year 1681, the evidence was given in *public* before the grand jury at the Old Bailey; and, in connection with that prosecution, it was declared, that it had always been the practice to so examine the witnesses publicly, whenever it had been requested by those who prosecuted for the king (3 Harg. St. Tr. 417). But it is apprehended, that this is the last instance of such a procedure.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Brown*, [1895] 1 Q. B. 119.

tion, including perjury (*n*), conspiracy, and the like (*o*), unless such recognizance be given by the prosecutor as is mentioned in the statute ; or unless the person accused has been committed or bound over to appear to answer an indictment for the offence after a preliminary investigation before the magistrates ; or unless such consent or direction be given for the prosecution as the statute specifies (*p*), and which consent or direction may be given by any of the judges, by the attorney-general or solicitor-general, or by the court itself, before whom the indictment was preferred. And if in such cases the accused be acquitted, he may recover his reasonable costs and expenses from the prosecutor (*q*).

[The grand jury are sworn to enquire only for the body of the county (*pro corpore comitatus*), and for no other part of the kingdom ; and therefore they cannot regularly inquire of a fact done out of the county for which they are sworn, unless particularly enabled to do so by Act of Parliament. To so high a nicety was this matter antiently carried, that where a man was wounded in one county and died in another, the offender was at common law indictable in neither, because no complete act of felony was done in either of them : but, by the 2 & 3 Edw. VI. (1548) c. 24, he was rendered indictable in the county where the party died, and, by the Criminal Law Act, 1826, he is now indictable in either. So also in other cases ; as particularly where *treason* is committed out of the realm, it may be inquired of in any county within the realm, in pursuance of the 26 Hen. VIII. (1534) c. 13,

(*n*) Criminal Procedure Act, 1851 ; *R.* v. *Bray* (1862), 3 B. & Sm. 255.

(*o*) These offences are, — Perjury, subornation of perjury, conspiracy, obtaining property by false pretences, keeping a gambling house, keeping a disorderly house, and indecent assault. Among these offences are now included libel, or any offence under the Newspaper Libel and Registration Act, 1881, s. 6.

(*p*) *Ex parte Wason* (1869), L. R. 4 Q. B. 573.

(*q*) *Stubbs* v. *Director of Public Prosecutions* (1890), 24 Q. B. D. 577.

[35 Hen. VIII. (1543) c. 2, and 5 & 6 Edw. VI. (1551) c. 11.] And there are to be found in the statute book a variety of specific exceptions from the principle that an offender must be tried in the county in which the offence is committed, which have been introduced, from time to time, to prevent the failure of justice, or to promote its convenient administration, and with regard to which the reader must be referred to the books of criminal practice. We may, however, notice here, that, under the authority of the Criminal Jurisdiction Act, 1802, all offences committed by persons employed by the Crown in any station abroad, in the exercise or under colour of their office, may be tried in England (*r*) ; and that the same is the case as to offences committed at sea, or within the admiralty jurisdiction (*s*). Again, by the Counties of Cities Act, 1798, where an offence has been committed within a county corporate (other than London or Westminster, or in Southwark), the indictment may be preferred to the jury of the next adjoining county (*t*) ; by the Criminal Law Act, 1826, section 12, where any indictable offence has been committed on the boundary or boundaries of two or more counties, or within the distance of five hundred yards of any such boundary or boundaries, or has been begun in one county and completed in another, it may be dealt with and tried in either or any of such counties ; and by the Central Criminal Court Act, 1834, section 3, as to all offences within the jurisdiction of the Central Criminal Court (*u*), the whole metropolitan district over which it extends is

(*r*) 11 Will. 3 (1698), c. 12; 8 East, 31 ; *R.* v. *Eyre* (1868), L. R. 3 Q. B. 487.

(*s*) Central Criminal Court Act, 1834, s. 22 ; Admiralty Offences Act, 1844 ; Admiralty Offences (Colonial) Act, 1849 ; Larceny Act, 1861, s. 115 ; Malicious Damage Act, 1861, s. 72 ; Forgery Act, 1861, s. 36 ; Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 36 ; Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 68 ; Territorial Waters Jurisdiction Act, 1878 ; Foreign Jurisdiction Act, 1890 ; Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, ss. 686, 687, 689.

(*t*) Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, s. 23.

(*u*) *Vide sup.* pp. 272, 273.

considered, for the purpose of indictment, as one county. And the jurisdiction of this court extends also, as we have seen, to offences committed at sea. Besides all which, it is to be remarked, in connection with this subject, that, independently of legislative provision, some offences admit at common law of inquiry and trial in more counties than one,—*e.g.*, in treason committed within the realm, the indictment may be in any county in which any one overt act can be proved (*x*), and in conspiracy, in any county in which any act has been committed in furtherance of the common design (*y*). So, if a man commit larceny in one county, and carry the goods with him into another, he may be indicted in either, for the law considers this as a taking in both (*z*); and this principle has been adopted by the Larceny Act, 1861, section 114, under which Act, if property be stolen or otherwise feloniously taken in one part of the United Kingdom, and the offender afterwards have it in his possession in any *other* part of the United Kingdom, he may be dealt with for larceny or theft in that part where he shall so have such property, as if he had actually stolen or feloniously taken it there. And a receiver of stolen property may be dealt with in that part of the United Kingdom where he shall receive the property, as if it had been originally stolen there.

[When the grand jury have heard the evidence, if they think it a groundless accusation, they used formerly to indorse on the back of the bill "*ignoramus*," or "we know nothing of it," intimating that, though the facts might possibly be true, the truth did not appear. But now they assert in English more absolutely, "not a true bill," or (which is the better way) "*not found*"; and then the bill is said to be "thrown out," and the party is discharged without further answer. A fresh bill may not afterwards

(*x*) *Deacon's Case* (1746), Fost. 9.
(*y*) *R.* v. *Brisac and Scott* (1803), 4 East, 164.
(*z*) 1 Hale, P. C. 507; 2 Hale, P. C. 163.

[be preferred against him before the same grand jury at the same assizes or sessions (*a*); but such bill may afterwards be preferred to a *subsequent* grand jury. On the other hand, if the grand jury are satisfied of the truth of the accusation, they indorse upon it, "a true bill," antiently "*billa vera*"; and the indictment is then said to be "*found*," and the party stands indicted. But to find a bill, there must at least twelve of the jury agree; for so tender is the law of England of the lives and liberties of the subjects, that no man can be convicted at the suit of the Crown upon an indictment, unless by the unanimous voice of twenty-four of his equals and neighbours, that is, by twelve at least of the grand jury, in the first place, assenting to the accusation, and afterwards by the whole petty jury, of twelve more, finding him guilty upon his trial. But if twelve of the grand jury assent, it is a good presentment, though some of the rest disagree (*b*). And the indictment when so found (or not found, as the case may be) is then returned, or publicly delivered, into court; and the finding of the jury openly proclaimed.

Indictments must have a precise and sufficient certainty;] and, in their margin, they always mention the county in which the offence was committed, which is done by way of venue, that is, by way of indicating from what county the jurors came by whom the indictment was found. In the body also of the instrument, there was formerly always inserted, by way of more particular venue, and to indicate the place from whence the petty jury, who are afterwards to try the fact, would, according to the antient usage, have been summoned (*c*), an allegation of the town, hamlet, or parish, in which the fact was supposed to be committed, as well as the day of its commission (*d*). But by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, section 23, it was made

(*a*) *R.* v. *Humphreys* (1842), Car. & M. 601.

(*b*) 2 Hale, P. C. 161.

(*c*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 23, s. 92.

(*d*) *R.* v. *Brookes* (1842), Car. & M. 543.

unnecessary to state any *venue* in the body of the indictment; the county in the margin being taken to be the venue for all the facts, except where it is requisite to state a place, by way of local description and not merely as venue, in which latter case the place is still stated in the body of the indictment. So, by the same statute (s. 24), an omission in the indictment to state the *time*, or any imperfect statement of it, where time is not of the essence of the offence, will not constitute any objection. [But cases occasionally occur in which time *is* of the essence of the offence, for example, where there is any limitation in point of time assigned for the prosecution of offenders; an instance of which arises on the Treason Act, 1695, which enacts, that no prosecution shall be had for any of the treasons or misprisions therein mentioned, (except an assassination, designed or attempted, of the person of the king,) unless the bill of indictment be found within three years after the offence committed (*e*). So also, in case of murder, the time of the death must be laid within a year and a day after the mortal stroke was given.]

In other respects, also, indictments must have a precise and sufficient certainty. By the 1 Hen. V. (1413) c. 5, all indictments were required to set forth the christian name, surname, and addition of the state and degree, mystery, town, or place, and the county of the offender, and all this to identify his person; but in a case where the name of the person charged was unknown, and he refused to disclose it, an indictment against him as a person whose name was to the jurors unknown, but who was personally brought before them by the keeper of the prison, was held, notwithstanding the above enactment, to be sufficient (*f*). And now, by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, section 24, it has been enacted, that no want of, or

(*e*) Fost. 249.

(*f*) *R.* v. *Anon.* (1822), Russ. & R. 489.

imperfection in, the addition of the defendant, shall vitiate an indictment; nor the designation of any person by a name of office or other descriptive appellation, instead of by his proper name (*g*).

[Again, the offence itself must be set forth with clearness and certainty (*h*); and in some crimes, particular words of art must be used, which are so appropriated by the law to express the precise idea which it entertains of the offence, that no other words, however synonymous they may seem, are capable of doing it. Thus, in treason, the facts must be laid to be done "treasonably and against "his allegiance,"—antiently, "*proditoriè et contra ligeantiæ* "*suæ debitum*,"—else the indictment is void. In indictments for murder, it is necessary to say, that the party indicted "murdered," not "killed" or "slew" the other, which, till the 4 Geo. II. (1730), c. 26, directed all proceedings in courts, concerning the law and administration of justice, to be in English, was expressed in Latin by the word "*murdravit*." In all indictments for felonies, the adverb "feloniously" must be used; and for burglaries, also "burglariously"; and all these to ascertain the intent. In rapes, the word "ravished" is necessary, and must not be expressed by any periphrasis; and this, in order to render the crime certain. So, in larcenies, the words "feloniously took and carried away" are necessary to every indictment; for these only can express the very offence (*i*).] In addition to which we may remark, that where the offence is created by an Act of Parliament, the words of the statute, which describe the offence, should be exactly pursued (*k*).

The precision indeed of our criminal pleadings, up to a recent period, was carried to an extravagant length, tend-

(*g*) As to the case of a corporation, see 2 Gal. & Dav. 236.

(*h*) *R.* v. *Rowed* (1842), 3 Q. B. 180; *Bradlaugh* v. *R.* (1878), 3 Q. B. D. 607.

(*i*) *R.* v. *Crighton* (1803), Russ. & R. 62.

(*k*) *R.* v. *Jukes* (1800), 8 T. R. 536.

ing to an excessive subtlety and overstrained observance of form, very prejudicial to the interests of justice ; but this blemish on our jurisprudence has now been to a large extent removed by the provisions of particular statutes, the principal of which (*l*) shall be here briefly noticed.

And, first, by the 9 Geo. IV. (1828), c. 15, and the Criminal Procedure Act, 1848, section 4, the judges at the assizes were empowered, at their discretion, to cause an indictment or information for any offence whatever, to be forthwith amended by an officer of the court, when any *variance* appeared between some matter in writing or in print produced in evidence, and the recital or setting forth thereof in the indictment or information whereon the trial was pending ; and by the Quarter Sessions Act, 1849, section 10, the same powers of amendment were entrusted to every court of general or quarter sessions of the peace.

Again, by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, section 1 (*m*), it is provided, in much wider terms, that whenever, on the trial of an indictment (*n*), there shall appear to be a variance between the statement therein and the evidence offered, as to the name of any county, riding, division,

(*l*) The following enactments may also be consulted:—*Coining*, Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 37 ; *cutting and wounding*, Prevention of Offences Act, 1851, s. 5 ; *embezzlement and obtaining money under false pretences*, Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, s. 18 ; Larceny Act, 1861, ss. 72, 88 ; *falsification of accounts*, Falsification of Accounts Act, 1875, s. 2 ; *forgery*, Forgery Act, 1861, s. 44 ; *larceny*, Larceny Act, 1861, ss. 5, 92 ; *murder and manslaughter*, Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, s. 6 ; *post-office offences*, Post Office (Money Orders) Act, 1848, s. 5 ; *perjury*, Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, ss. 20, 21 ; *receiving stolen property*, Larceny Act, 1861, s. 94 ; *robbery*, *id.* s. 41 ; *treason-felony*, Treason Felony Act, 1848, s. 5.

(*m*) *Sill's Case* (1853), Dears. C. C. 132 ; *Frost's Case* (1855), *ib.* 474 ; *R.* v. *Green* (1856), 26 L. J. M. C. 17 ; *R.* v. *Gumble* (1872), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 1.

(*n*) This term includes an information, inquisition, or presentment ; and any plea, replication, or other pleading ; and any *nisi prius* record (Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, s. 30).

city, borough, town corporate, parish, township, or other place, or in the name or description of any person therein alleged to be the owner of property forming the subject of the offence charged, or alleged in the indictment to be injured or damaged, or intended to be injured or damaged, by such offence, or in the name or description of any person, matter, or thing therein named or described, or in the ownership of any property named or described therein, —it shall be lawful for the court before which the trial shall be had, in any of the above cases, if it shall consider such variance *not material to the merits of the case*, and that the accused cannot be prejudiced thereby in his defence on the merits, to order the indictment to be amended, according to the proof, by an officer of the court or some other person, on such terms as to postponing the trial, to be had before the same or another jury, as the court shall think reasonable.

And by the same statute, sections 5, 7, and the Forgery Act, 1861, sections 42, 43, it has been provided, that whenever it shall become necessary, in any indictment, to make averment as to an instrument which shall consist, wholly or in part, of writing, print, or figures, it shall be sufficient to describe such instrument by any name, description, or designation by which it is usually known, or by the purport thereof, without setting forth any copy or facsimile.

Moreover, by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, section 9, if, on the trial of one indicted for a felony or misdemeanor, it shall appear to the jury, that he did not complete the offence charged in the indictment, but was guilty only of an *attempt* to commit the same, the jury may find accordingly, and he shall be punished in the same manner as if he had been indicted for the attempt only. And by the same statute (s. 12), if, upon the trial of a person indicted for any misdemeanor, it shall appear that the facts given in evidence amount in law to a felony, he shall not, by reason thereof, be entitled to be acquitted of the

misdemeanor ; but he shall not be liable to be afterwards prosecuted for the felony, unless the court shall think fit to discharge the jury from giving any verdict, and shall direct an indictment for the felony. In which latter case, he shall be dealt with, in all respects, as if he had not been put on his trial for the misdemeanor.

Finally, by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, section 24, no indictment for any offence shall be held insufficient for want of the averment of any matter unnecessary to be proved ; nor for the omission of the words "as appears by "the record," or of the words "with force and arms," or of the words "against the peace," nor for the insertion of the words "against the form of the statute," instead of "against the form of the statutes," or *vice versâ ;* nor for omitting to state the time at which the offence was committed, in any case where time is not of the essence of the offence, nor for stating the time imperfectly ; nor for stating the offence to have been committed on a day subsequent to the finding of the indictment, or on an impossible day, or on a day that never happened ; nor for want of a proper or perfect venue ; nor for want of a proper or formal conclusion ; nor for want of or imperfection in the addition of any defendant ; nor for the want of any statement of the value or price of the matter or thing, or of the amount of damage, injury, or spoil, in any case where the value or price, or the amount of damage, injury, or spoil, is not of the essence of the offence.

III. The third method of prosecution, or accusation, is a *Criminal Information*, which dispenses with any previous finding by a jury (either by way of presentment or of indictment).

The term *Information* is variously applied in our law. For it sometimes denotes a charge laid before justices of the peace sitting as a court of summary jurisdiction ; and

sometimes it denotes a complaint (or *qui tam* action) exhibited in a court of law by a common informer, in order to recover a penalty awarded by some enactment to the first who shall inform against its breach; and sometimes it denotes a complaint exhibited in the name of the Crown itself, in respect of some civil claim; and lastly, it denotes a complaint by the Crown filed in the King's Bench Division of the High Court, in respect of some offence under the degree of treason or of ordinary felony. It is to informations of this last species only that our attention is now to be directed, the others having been sufficiently noticed already in other parts of these Commentaries.

[The informations that are exhibited in the name of the king alone, in criminal cases, are of two kinds; first, those which are truly and properly his own suits, and are filed *ex officio* by his own immediate officer, the attorney-general, and secondly, those in which, though the Crown is the nominal prosecutor, yet it is at the relation of some private person or common informer. These last are filed by the king's coroner and attorney, usually called the Master of the Crown Office, who is for this purpose the standing officer of the public (*o*).

The objects of the king's own criminal informations, filed *ex officio* by his attorney-general, are properly such enormous misdemeanors as peculiarly tend to disturb or endanger his government, or to molest or affront him in the regular discharge of his royal functions. For offences so high and dangerous, in the punishment or prevention of which a moment's delay would be fatal, the law has given to the Crown the power of an immediate

(*o*) *R.* v. *Smithson* (1833), 4 B. & Ad. 861; *R.* v. *Ere* (1836), 5 A. & E. 780; *R.* v. *Larrieu* (1837), 7 A. & E. 277. The procedure upon such *informations* has been recently amended by the Crown Office Rules, 1886, which came into force on the 28th day of April, 1886. (Short and Mellor, *Crown Office Practice* (1890).)

[prosecution by this method, without waiting for any previous application to any other tribunal; which power, thus necessary not only to the ease and safety, but even to the very existence of the executive government, was originally reserved in the great plan of the English constitution, wherein provision is wisely made for the due preservation of all its parts. Of the other species of criminal informations, that is to say, such as are filed by the Master of the Crown Office, upon the complaint or at the relation of a private subject, the objects are any gross and notorious misdemeanors, riots, batteries, libels, and other immoralities of an atrocious kind, not indeed peculiarly tending to disturb the government, but which, on account of their magnitude or pernicious example, deserve the most public animadversion (*p*).] In such cases as these, the course is for the party aggrieved (he first electing between his civil action and this prerogative remedy) (*q*), to move the King's Bench Division for a rule to show cause why a criminal information should not be filed. Such motion must be supported, in the case of libel, by an affidavit expressly denying the truth of the imputation (*r*); and the rule, if granted, is served on the defendant, according to the ordinary course in the case of *ex parte* motions. If no sufficient cause be shown, the rule is made absolute, and an information filed accordingly; but the court will rarely grant the rule, unless applicant is a person of some public eminence (*s*). When either kind of criminal information has been thus filed, the truth of the facts alleged must afterwards be tried by a petty jury of the county wherein the offence arose; unless, indeed, the case be of such importance as to

(*p*) Hawk, P. C. b. 2, c. 26, s. 1; *R.* v. *Marshall* (1855), 4 El. & Bl. 475.

(*q*) *R.* v. *Sparrow* (1788), 2 T. R. 198; *Wakley* v. *Cooke* (1847), 16 M. & W. 822.

(*r*) *R.* v. *Wright* (1815), 2 Chit. Rep. 162.

(*s*) *Ex parte Duke of Marlborough* (1844), 5 Q. B. 955.

require to be tried *at bar*. It is so tried either by a common or special jury, like an ordinary action ; and if the verdict be for the Crown, the defendant is afterwards brought up for judgment before the High Court.

[There can be no doubt, but that this mode of prosecution, by information (or suggestion) filed on record by the attorney-general or by the Master of the Crown Office, is as antient as the common law itself. For, as the king was bound to prosecute, or at least to lend the sanction of his name to a prosecutor, whenever a grand jury informed him upon their oaths that there was a sufficient ground for instituting a criminal suit, so, when these, his immediate officers, were otherwise sufficiently assured that one had committed a gross misdemeanor, either personally against him or his government, or against the public peace and good order, they were at liberty, without waiting for any further intelligence, to convey that information to the court of King's Bench by a suggestion on record, and to carry on the prosecution in the name of the Crown. But these informations are confined to misdemeanors ; for whenever any felonious offence is charged, the law requires that the accusation be warranted by the oath of twelve men, before the party shall be put to answer it. And as to those offences, in which informations were allowed as well as indictments, so long as they were carried on in a legal and regular course in his majesty's court of King's Bench, the subject had no reason to complain ; for the same notice was given, the same process was issued, the same pleas were allowed, the same trial by jury was had, the same judgment was given by the same judges, as if the prosecution had originally been by indictment. But when the 3 Hen. VII. (1487), c. 1 extended the jurisdiction of the Court of Star-Chamber, the members of which were the sole judges of the law, the fact, and the penalty, and when the 11 Hen. VII. (1495), c. 3 permitted informations to be brought by any informer upon any penal statute, not extending to life or

[member, at the assizes, or before the justices of the peace, who were to hear and determine the same according to their own discretion—then the legal and orderly jurisdiction of the court of King's Bench fell into disuse and oblivion; and Empson and Dudley, by hunting out obsolete penalties, and this tyrannical mode of prosecution, with other oppressive devices, continually harassed the subject, and shamefully enriched the Crown (*t*). Wherefore, the 11 Hen. VII. (1495), c. 3 was repealed by the 1 Hen. VIII. (1509), c. 6; and the Court of Star-Chamber, although it continued for some time longer, was finally abolished by the 16 Car. I. (1640), c. 10.

Upon this dissolution, the old common law authority of the court of King's Bench, as the *custos morum* of the nation (*u*), revived (*x*). And it is observable, that, in the same Act of Parliament which abolished the Court of Star-Chamber, a conviction by information is expressly reckoned up as one of the legal modes of conviction of such persons as should offend a third time against the provisions of that statute (*y*). It is true, Sir Matthew Hale, who presided in this court soon after the time of such revival, is said to have been no friend to this method of prosecution (*z*); but if so, the reason of such his dislike was probably the ill use which the Master of the Crown Office then made of his authority, by permitting the subject to be harassed with vexatious informations whenever applied for by any malicious or revengeful prosecutor, and not any doubt of their legality, or propriety upon urgent occasions (*a*). For the power of filing

(*t*) 1 And. 157.

(*u*) *Prynn's Case* (1690), 5 Mod. 459.

(*x*) Styl. Rep. 217, 245; Styl. Pract. tit. *Information*, 187 (edit. 1657); *Fountain's Case* (1664), 1 Sid. 152; *Dudly's Case* (1658), 2 Sid. 71.

(*y*) Stat. 16 Car. 1, c. 10 (1640), s. 6.

(*z*) *Prynn's Case* (1690), 5 Mod. 459.

(*a*) 1 Saund. 301; *R.* v. *Starling* (1663), 1 Sid. 174.

[informations, without any control, then resided in the breast of the Master ; and, being filed in the name of the Crown, they subjected the prosecutor to no costs, though on trial they proved to be groundless. This oppressive use of them, in the times preceding the Revolution, occasioned a struggle, soon after the accession of King William, to procure a declaration of their illegality by the judgment of the court of King's Bench (*b*) ; but Sir John Holt, who then presided there, and all the judges, were clearly of opinion, that this proceeding was grounded on the common law. A few years afterwards, a more temperate remedy was applied in parliament, by the 4 W. & M. (1692), c. 18, which enacted, that the Master of the Crown Office should not file any information without an express order from the court of King's Bench ; and that every prosecutor, permitted to promote such information, should give security by a recognizance of twenty pounds to prosecute the same with effect, and to pay costs to the defendant, in case of his acquittal thereon, unless the judge who tried the information should certify that there was reasonable cause for filing it, and at all events, to pay costs, unless the information should be tried within a year after issue joined (*c*). But the Act did not extend to any other informations than those which were exhibited by the Master of the Crown Office ; and consequently informations at the suit of the Crown, filed *ex officio* by the attorney-general, were nowise restrained thereby.]

Moreover, as regards criminal informations on account of libels in newspapers, it was provided by the Newspaper Libel and Registration Act, 1881, section 3, that no such information should be commenced against the proprietor, publisher, editor, or other person responsible for the pub-

(*b*) *Prynn's Case*, *ubi supra* ; *R.* v. *Berchet* (1690), 1 Show. 106.

(*c*) As to the costs of a criminal information for libel, see *R.* v. *Latimer* (1850), 20 L. J. Q. B. 129.

lication of the newspaper, without the written fiat or allowance of the director of public prosecutions being first obtained; notwithstanding which provision, the fiat of the attorney-general, or the order of the court, was still deemed a sufficient authority for the commencement of such a prosecution (*d*). A new provision has, however, now been substituted, by the Law of Libel Amendment Act, 1888, section 8, which requires the order of a judge at chambers to sanction this sort of prosecution. Such order is only to be obtained on due notice to the accused, who may be heard against the application.

It will be gathered from what has been already stated, that criminal proceedings are, as the general rule, instituted at the instance of a private prosecutor, that is to say, either by the person who has been himself the subject of the offence, or (in the case of misbehaviour punishable by the infliction of a penalty) by some common informer for the sake of money; and it is only occasionally that the Crown interferes directly, and that the alleged offender is prosecuted by the Treasury. As one result of this state of things, offenders (it was believed) occasionally escaped the legal consequences of the crimes they had committed; and it was accordingly enacted, by the Prosecution of Offences Act, 1879, that the secretary of state should appoint an officer, to be called the "director of public prosecutions," whose duty it should be, under the superintendence of the attorney-general, to institute, undertake, and carry on such criminal proceedings, and to give such advice and assistance to the police and magistracy, as should be prescribed by general regulations made under the Act and sanctioned by both houses of parliament, or (in any special case) such as might be directed by the attorney-general (*e*). Such general regulations were, in particular, to provide for such director

(*d*) *Yates v. R.* (1885), 14 Q. B. D. 648.

(*e*) Sects. 2, 8.

taking action in cases of importance or difficulty, or in which special circumstances, or the refusal or failure of a person to proceed with a prosecution, appeared to render such action necessary to secure the due prosecution of an offender. A public prosecutor was in due course appointed in pursuance of the Act; but, by the Prosecution of Offences Act, 1884, the solicitor to His Majesty's Treasury is now constituted the director of criminal prosecutions. In order to promote the objects of the Act of 1879, a provision was inserted, whereby it was made the duty of every clerk to a justice or police court to transmit to the director of public prosecutions a copy of the information, the depositions, and other documents connected with any case in which a prosecution instituted before the justice or court was withdrawn, or not proceeded with in a reasonable time; also, that every justice and coroner, who received notice from the director of public prosecutions that he had intervened in a criminal proceeding before such justice or coroner, should transmit to the director such documents connected with the proceeding as he is required by law to deliver to the proper officer of the court in which the case is to be tried (*f*). On the other hand, nothing in the Act interferes in any way with the right (as theretofore existing) of any private person to institute, undertake, or carry on any criminal proceeding.

Besides prosecution by way of indictment and information, there formerly existed another, called an *Appeal*, which was at the suit of the subject, not of the Crown; and demanded punishment on account of the private injury rather than for the public offence. This proceeding, (involving a trial by *battle*, instead of by jury,) though leading, in case of conviction, to the same punishment as if the offender had been indicted, might yet be remitted by the private prosecutor [and probably origi-

(*f*) Prosecution of Offences Act, 1879, s. 5.

[nated in those times when a private pecuniary satisfaction, called a *weregild*, was constantly paid to the party injured, or to his relations, to expiate enormous offences (*g*), a custom derived to us, in common with other northern nations, from our ancestors, the antient Germans ; among whom, according to Tacitus, "*luitur homicidium certo* "*armentorum ac pecorum numero, recipitque satisfactionem* "*universa domus*" (*h*). Prosecutions by this method of appeal were allowed, in cases of murder, larceny, rape, arson, and mayhem ; but were not confined to these cases of private injury, for it was antiently permitted to any subject to appeal another subject of the crime of high treason, and that either in the courts of common law or in parliament, or, (for treasons committed beyond the seas,) in the court of the high constable and marshal (*i*). But these appeals for treason were, in the opinion of Sir M. Hale, taken away by the 5 Edw. III. (1331), c. 9, 25 Edw. III. (1351), c. 4, and 1 Hen. IV. (1399), c. 14 (*k*) ;] and though the remaining appeals continued in force till very recent times (*l*), yet by the 59 Geo. III. (1819), c. 46, it was enacted, that it should thenceforth not be lawful for any person to sue an appeal for treason, murder, felony, or other offence, any law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.

(*g*) In our Saxon Laws, particularly those of Athelstan, (*Judic. Civ. Lond.* Wilk. 71,) we find the several weregilds for homicide established in progressive order, from the death of the ceorl or peasant to that of the king himself. And see the laws of Hen. I, c. 12.

(*h*) *De Mor. Germ.* c. 21. In the same manner, by the Irish Brehon Law, a composition by pecuniary recompense might be made between a murderer and the friends of the deceased. (Spenser, *St. of Ireland*, 1513 (ed. Hughes).)

(*i*) We are informed by Blackstone, that as late as the year 1631 there was a trial by battle awarded in the court of chivalry, on an appeal of treason beyond the seas. This was the case of *Donald, Lord Rea* v. *David Ramsey* (Rushw. vol. ii. part ii. 112).

(*k*) 1 Hale, P. C. 349.

(*l*) *Ashford* v. *Thornton* (1818) 1 B. & Ald. 405.

CHAPTER XV.

OF PROCESS UPON AN INDICTMENT.

[We are now to inquire into the manner of issuing process, after indictment found, to bring in the accused to answer it. We have hitherto supposed the offender to be in custody or else held to bail, before the finding of the indictment, in which cases, he is, immediately after the finding or as soon as convenience permits, to be arraigned thereon ; but if he has fled, or secretes himself, so as to avoid the operation of the warrant, or if no warrant has ever been issued for his arrest, or at least no commitment to take his trial has taken place, still an indictment may be preferred against him in his absence, since (were he present) he could not be heard before the grand jury against it. And if it be found, then process must issue to bring him into court, to appear to be arraigned. For the indictment cannot be tried unless he appears, according to the rule of justice in all criminal cases, and the express provision of the 28 Edw. III. (1354), c. 3, in the case of capital offences ; that no man shall be put to death without being brought to answer by due process of law.]

In general, the process on an indictment is by writ of *capias*, where the person charged is not in custody, in cases not otherwise provided for by statute (*a*). But upon an indictment found during the assizes or sessions, the practice is, to issue a *bench warrant* for the apprehension of the defendant (*b*) ; and in certain cases, a person against

(*a*) 2 Hale, P. C. 195 ; *R.* v. *Yandell* (1792), 4 T. R. 521.

(*b*) 1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 36, 339.

whom an indictment has been found, or information filed for a misdemeanor, may be apprehended and held to bail by a warrant from a judge of the King's Bench Division of the High Court under the Bail Bonds Act, 1808, s. 1 (*c*). And process, on indictment found, may also be by a *justice's* warrant, under the Indictable Offences Act, 1848, section 3, which enacts, that where an indictment has been found in any court of oyer and terminer, general gaol delivery, or general or quarter sessions of the peace, against any person then at large, a certificate of the fact may be granted by the proper officer to the prosecutor; and upon production of such certificate to any justice of the peace for the place where the offence is alleged in the indictment to have been committed, or in which the person indicted is or is suspected to be, the justice shall issue a warrant for his apprehension, and, upon proof that he is the person named in the indictment, shall either commit him for trial, or admit him to bail. If the offender is already in prison for any other offence, the justice, upon proof thereof, is to issue his warrant to the gaoler, commanding him to detain such prisoner in custody, until by writ of *habeas corpus* he shall be removed therefrom, for the purpose of being tried upon the indictment, or until he shall be otherwise discharged in due course of law (*d*). And in certain cases, the accused, if already in prison, may be removed, for the purposes of the trial, even without a *habeas corpus* or other writ.

Supposing, however, the defendant not to be found, or that his apprehension cannot be effected by any of the above means, he is then liable in general to be *outlawed* for his non-appearance to the indictment (*e*). And in

(*c*) *Vide sup.* p. 304.

(*d*) Central Criminal Court Act, 1856; Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867, s. 10.

(*e*) Outlawry does not lie against a peer, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace; nor against an infant under fourteen (1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 348); and in the case of the outlawry of a woman she is *waived*.

[order to outlaw the offender, the first process, in cases of treason or felony, is a writ of *capias* (*f*); but in misdemeanors, there is, in the first place, a writ of *venire facias*, which is in the nature of a summons, to cause the party to appear. And if, by the return to such *venire*, it appears that the party hath lands in the county whereby he may be distrained, then a distress infinite is issued from time to time till he appears; but if the sheriff returns that he has no lands in his bailiwick, a writ of *capias* then issues, which commands the sheriff to take his body and have him at the next assizes. And if he cannot be taken upon the first, a second and a third used to issue, called an *alias* and a *pluries capias* (*g*). After the proper writ or writs have issued without effect, the offender is to be put in the *exigent*, that is, he is to be exacted (proclaimed or required to surrender), at five successive county courts, *i.e.*, the old courts of that name held before the sheriff; and a writ of proclamation is also to be issued. If he is returned *quinto exactus*, and does not appear at the fifth exaction or requisition, then he is adjudged to be *outlawed*, or put out of the protection of the law, and he becomes incapable of taking the benefit of the law, in any respect, either by bringing actions or otherwise; and his property is forfeited to the Crown (*h*). Moreover, outlawry for treason or felony amounts to a conviction of the offence, as much as if the offender had been found guilty by his country (*i*). The outlaw's life is, however, still under the protection of the law; so that, though antiently he was said to be *caput lupinum*, and might be knocked on the head, like a wolf, by any one that should meet him (*k*),

(*f*) 4 Bl. Com. 314.

(*g*) By the Crown Office Rules, 1886, r. 110, only one writ of *capias* need now be issued.

(*h*) The Felony Act, 1870, whereby forfeiture is abolished on convictions for treason or felony, does not affect the law of forfeiture consequent upon *criminal outlawry*.

(*i*) 2 Hale, P. C. 205.

(*k*) Mirr. c. 4, s. 4; Co. Litt. 128.

[—because, having renounced all law, he was to be dealt with as in a state of nature, when every one that should find him might slay him,—yet now, to avoid such inhumanity, it is holden, that no man is entitled to kill an outlaw wantonly or wilfully, but in so doing is guilty of murder (*l*), unless the killing happens in the endeavour to apprehend him (*m*). For any person may arrest an outlaw on a criminal prosecution, either of his own head, or by writ or warrant of *capias utlagatum*, in order to bring him in to be dealt with according to law.]

In order to take proceedings to REVERSE an outlawry, on the ground of error or otherwise (*n*), it is necessary that, in the case of treason or felony, the defendant should first render himself into custody (*o*), whereupon he may then take objection to the regularity of the process ; and such objection, if allowed, will have the effect of reversing the outlawry and setting aside the forfeiture, and will enable the party accused to plead and defend himself against the indictment (*p*). And in one instance, though the outlawry be regular, its consequences may still be avoided ; for, by the 5 & 6 Edw. VI. (1551), c. 11, if a person residing abroad is outlawed for treason under that Act, he may, within one year, yield himself to the chief justice, and offer to traverse the indictment ; and thereupon he shall be admitted to do so, and, being acquitted of the indictment, he shall be discharged of the outlawry.

[Thus much for process to bring in the offender after indictment found. And it is during this stage of the prosecution, that writs of *certiorari facias* are usually had, though they may also be had at any time before the trial or even before judgment, and (where error does not lie) (*q*), at any time, it seems, before execution ; the object of such writ being to certify and remove the indictment, with

(*l*) 1 Hale, P. C. 497.
(*m*) Bracton, l. 3, tr. 3, c. 11.
(*n*) *Tyate* v. *The Queen* (1845), 7 Q. B. 216 ; Crown Office Rules, 1886, rr. 113—121.
(*o*) *Solomon* v. *Graham* (1855), 5 El. & Bl. 309.
(*p*) 1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 368, 369.
(*q*) *Ib.*, 380.

[all the proceedings thereon, from an inferior court, into the King's Bench Division of the High Court. For the King's Bench was the sovereign ordinary court of justice in causes criminal, and had consequently the power of issuing such writ to any court of rank subordinate to its own in causes of this description, unless, of course, the *certiorari* were taken away by the express words of some Act of Parliament.

A *certiorari* removing the proceedings into such court is commonly granted for one of these four purposes : either, (1) To consider and determine the validity of an indictment, and the proceedings thereon, and to quash or confirm them, as there may be cause ; (2) Where it is surmised that a partial or insufficient trial will probably be had in the court below, in order to have the person against whom it is found tried *at bar*, or else before the justices of *nisi prius*, according to the course of a civil action (*r*) ; (3) In order to plead the royal pardon in the King's Bench Division ; or, (4) In order to issue process of outlawry against the offender, in places where the process of the inferior court will not reach him (*s*). Such writ of *certiorari*, when issued and delivered to the inferior court, for removing any record or other proceeding, as well upon indictment as otherwise, supersedes the jurisdiction of such inferior court, and makes all subsequent proceedings therein entirely erroneous and illegal, unless indeed the record is remanded to the court below, to be there tried and determined. A *certiorari* may be granted at the instance of either the prosecutor or the defendant ; and the former was once entitled to demand it as a matter of right, though the application of the latter has always been dependent on the discretion of the court (*t*).] But now, under the 5 & 6 Will. IV. (1835), c. 33 and the Criminal Procedure Act, 1853, s. 5, no *certiorari* shall issue at the instance

(*r*) 14 Hen. 6 (1435), c. 1 ; 6 Hen. 8 (1514), c. 6 ; 4 Rep. 43 ; 2 Hale, P. C. 41.

(*s*) 2 Hale, P. C. 210.

(*t*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 27, s. 27 ; *R.* v. *Gwynne* (1759), 2 Burr. 749 ; *R.* v. *Duchess of Kingston* (1775), Cowp. 283.

of the prosecutor, or of any other person (except the attorney-general), without motion first made in the King's Bench Division of the High Court, or before some judge thereof, and leave obtained in the same manner as where application is made on the part of the defendant; and moreover, before the allowance of any writ of *certiorari*, the party on whose behalf it is applied for, must enter into a recognizance, before a judge of such division or before a justice of the peace, in such sum and with such sureties as the court or judge may direct, and with such conditions as are contained in the previous statutes 5 & 6 W. & M. (1694), c. 11 and 8 & 9 Will. III. (1696), c. 33 (*u*). But no such recognizance is required from the prosecutor, in the case of an indictment found at quarter sessions against a *corporation* (*x*). And by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1853, section 4, it is enacted, that no indictments, except against bodies corporate not authorized to appear by attorney in the court in which the indictment is preferred, shall be removed into the King's Bench Division of the High Court, or into the Central Criminal Court, either at the instance of the prosecutor or of the defendant, other than the attorney-general acting on behalf of the Crown, unless it be made to appear to the court, that a fair and impartial trial of the case cannot be had in the court below; or that some question of law of more than usual difficulty and importance is likely to arise upon the trial; or that a view of the premises in respect whereof the indictment is preferred, or a special jury, may be required for the satisfactory trial of the same.

And with regard to the trial of offences, the indictment for which has been removed by *certiorari* into the King's Bench Division of the High Court, it is provided by the Central Criminal Court Act, 1856 ("Palmer's Act"), as

(*u*) *R.* v. *Oastler* (1874), L. R. 9 Q. B. 132; *R.* v. *Jarrell* (1857), 7 El. & Bl. 140; Crown Office Rules, 1886, rr. 28—42.

(*x*) *R.* v. *Mayor, etc. of Manchester* (1857), 7 El. & Bl. 453.

follows:—1. Whenever any indictment or inquisition has been so removed, in the case of some felony or misdemeanor alleged to have been committed in a place *out of the jurisdiction* of the Central Criminal Court, the King's Bench Division (or a judge thereof in vacation) may order the trial of such indictment or inquisition in the Central Criminal Court, provided it appear expedient to the ends of justice that such course should be taken (*y*). 2. Whenever any person shall have been committed or held to bail for any such felony or misdemeanor, the same division (or a judge thereof in vacation), if it shall appear expedient that the person charged shall be tried at the Central Criminal Court, may make an order to that effect; and thereupon a writ of *certiorari* shall be issued to the justices of oyer and terminer, or of the peace, or to the coroner, commanding them to certify and return to that court any indictment or inquisition which is then pending, or shall thereafter be found, against such person (*z*). And 3. Whenever a *certiorari* shall be delivered to any court, for the purpose of removing an indictment or inquisition therefrom, a person charged thereby, who shall then be in prison, shall not be discharged by such court, but shall remain there till discharged by due course of law (*a*).

[It is at this stage of the proceeding also, viz., after indictment found, and before arraignment, that indictments found by the grand jury against a peer must, in pursuance of a writ of *certiorari*, be certified and transmitted into the court of Parliament, or into that of the lord high steward of Great Britain (*b*); and that, in places of exclusive jurisdiction, as the two universities, indictments must be delivered up, on challenge and claim of cognizance, to the courts therein established by charter and confirmed by Act of Parliament, to be therein respectively tried and determined (*c*).]

(*y*) Sect. 1.
(*z*) Sect. 3.
(*a*) Sect. 11.
(*b*) *Vide sup.* pp. 260, 261.
(*c*) *Vide sup.* p. 284.

CHAPTER XVI.

OF ARRAIGNMENT AND ITS INCIDENTS.

[WHEN a person against whom a true bill of indictment is found appears voluntarily to plead thereto, or is brought up in custody to answer it, he is immediately to be ARRAIGNED ; which is the next stage of criminal prosecution. To arraign is nothing else but to call the prisoner to the bar of the court, to answer the matter charged upon him in the indictment (*a*). The prisoner is to be called to the bar by his name ; and it is laid down in our antient books (*b*), that, even under an indictment of the highest nature, he must be brought to the bar, without irons or any manner of shackles or bonds, unless there be evident danger of his escape, and then he may be secured with irons. Yet, in *Layer's Case*, A.D. 1722, a difference was taken between the time of arraignment and the time of trial ; and the prisoner in that case stood at the bar, in chains, during his arraignment (*c*).

On a charge of treason or felony, when the prisoner is brought to the bar, he used to be called upon by name to hold up his hand ; which, though it may seem a trifling circumstance, yet is of this importance, that, by the holding up of his hand, *constat de personâ*, and he owns himself to be of that name by which he is called (*d*). However, it

(*a*) This word in Latin (says Sir M. Hale, vol. ii. p. 216) is no other than *ad rationem ponere* ; and in French, *ad reson*, or abbreviated *a resn*, that is, "to call to account."

(*b*) Bract. l. 3, *De Coron.* c. 18, s. 3; Mirr. c. 5, ss. 1, 54 ; Flet. l. 1, c. 31, s. 1 ; Britt. c. 5 ; Staundf. P. C. 78 ; 3 Inst. 34 ; Kel. 10 ; 2 Hale, P. C. 219; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 28, s. 1.

(*c*) 16 St. Tri. 93; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 28, s. 1, n (2); *Waite's Case* (1743), 1 Leach, C. C. 28.

(*d*) 2 Hale, P. C. 219.

[is not an indispensable ceremony; for, being calculated merely for the purpose of identifying the person, any other acknowledgment will answer the purpose as well. Wherefore, if the prisoner obstinately and contemptuously refuses to hold up his hand, but confesses he is the person named, it is fully sufficient (*e*). The indictment is then read to him distinctly in the English tongue, that he may fully understand the charge; after which, he is asked, whether he be guilty of the crime whereof he stands indicted, or not guilty.] And we may here observe, that, by the Central Criminal Court Act, 1856, section 7, whenever any indictment or inquisition shall have been transmitted or removed to the Central Criminal Court under the provisions of that Act, the person charged shall be thereon arraigned, in the same manner in all respects as if the offence had been committed within the jurisdiction of that court, and the indictment or inquisition had been originally returned there.

[When a criminal is arraigned, he may either STAND MUTE or CONFESS THE FACT (which circumstances we may call INCIDENTS to the arraignment); or else PLEAD to the indictment. And we shall speak of these matters in their order.

I. Regularly, a prisoner is said to STAND MUTE, when, being arraigned for treason or felony, he either makes no answer at all, or answers foreign to the purpose, or with such matter as is not allowable; and will not answer otherwise (*f*). In the first case, the rule of the antient law was, that a jury was to be impanelled to inquire whether the prisoner stood obstinately mute, or was dumb *ex visitatione Dei*. If the latter appeared to be the case, the judges were to proceed to the trial as if he had pleaded not guilty (*g*); but if he was found to be obstinately

(*e*) *R.* v. *Radcliffe* (1746), 1 W. Bl. 3.

(*f*) 2 Hale, P. C. 316.

(*g*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 30 s. 7.

[mute, then, in treason, and in all misdemeanors, and in petty larcenies, it was held, that standing mute was equivalent to conviction. But upon indictment for any other felony, the prisoner, after *trina admonitio*, and a respite of a few hours, was subject (either by the common law, or else by the Statute of Westminster the First) (*h*), to the barbarous sentence of *peine forte et dure* (*i*). That is to say, he was remanded to prison and put into a low dark chamber, and there laid on his back on the bare floor naked, unless where decency forbade; and there was placed upon his body as great a weight of iron as he could bear, and more; and he had no sustenance, save only on the first day three morsels of the worst bread, and on the second day three draughts of standing water that should be nearest to the prison door; and in this situation, and with such alternate daily diet, he continued *till he died*, or (as antiently the judgment ran) *till he answered* (*k*).]

However, now, by the Criminal Law Act, 1827, section 2, it is enacted, that if any person, being arraigned upon, or charged with, any indictment or information for treason, felony, piracy, or misdemeanor, shall stand mute of malice, or will not answer directly to the indictment or information (*l*), it shall be lawful for the court to order the proper officer to enter a plea of "not guilty" on behalf of the accused; and the plea so entered is to have the same force and effect, as if it had been actually pleaded by the accused (*m*). When there is reason to doubt, however,

(*h*) 2 Inst. 179; 2 Hale, P. C. 322; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 30, s. 16; Stamdf. P. C. 149; Barr. 82; 2 Hale, P. C. 322; and Year Book, 8 Hen. 4, c. 2.

(*i*) Reeves, *Hist. Eng. L.* vol. ii. p. 134; vol. iii. pp. 133, 250, 418.

(*k*) Britt. cc. 4 and 22; Flet. l. 1, c. 34, s. 33; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 30, s. 16.

(*l*) In the case where the prisoner is deaf and dumb, he may be communicated with by signs; or the indictment may be shown to him, with the usual questions written on paper (*Jones's Case* (1773), 1 Leach, 452, n.; *Thompson's Case* (1827), 2 Lew. C. C. 137; *R.* v. *Dyson* (1831), 7 Car. & P. 305, n.).

(*m*) *R.* v. *Bitton* (1833), 6 Car. & P. 92.

whether the prisoner is sane, a jury should be charged to inquire whether he is sane or not; which jury may consist of any twelve persons who may happen to be present. And upon this issue, the question will be, whether he has intellect enough to plead and to comprehend the course of the proceedings. And if the jury find in the affirmative, the plea of not guilty may be entered, and the trial will proceed (*n*); but if in the negative, the provision of the Criminal Lunatics Act, 1800, section 2, is then applicable, by which it is enacted, that insane persons indicted for any offence, and on their arraignment found to be insane by a jury lawfully impanelled for that purpose, so that they cannot be tried upon the indictment, shall be ordered by the court to be kept in strict custody till the royal pleasure be known (*o*).

II. [The other incident to arraignments, exclusive of the plea, is the prisoner's CONFESSION of the indictment. Upon a simple and plain confession, the court hath nothing to do but to award judgment; but the court is usually very averse to receiving and recording such confession (at least in capital cases, out of tenderness for the life of the subject,) and generally advises the prisoner to retract it and plead to the indictment (*p*). But the confession may be what in law is called an *approvement*, which was when a person, indicted of treason or felony, and arraigned for the same, confessed the fact before plea pleaded, and appealed or accused others, his accomplices, of the same crime, in order to obtain his pardon. In this case, he was called an *approver* (*probator*); and the party appealed, or accused, was called the *appellee*. Such approvement could only be in capital offences; and it was, as it were, equivalent to an indictment, since the appellee was equally called upon to

(*n*) *Jones's Case, ubi sup.; Steel's Case* (1787), 1 Leach, 451.

(*o*) *R.* v. *Dyson* (1831), 7 Car. & P. 305, n.; *R.* v. *Pritchard* (1836), 7 C. & P. 303; *R.* v. *Berry* (1876), 1 Q. B. D. 447.

(*p*) 2 Hale, P. C. 225.

[answer it. And if he had no reasonable and legal exceptions to make to the person of the approver, which indeed were very numerous, he was obliged to put himself on his trial; and, if found guilty, he suffered the judgment of the law, and the approver had his pardon *ex debito justitiæ*. On the other hand, if the appellee were acquitted by the jury, the approver received judgment to be hanged, upon his own confession of the indictment; for the condition of his pardon failed, viz. the conviction of some other person, and therefore his conviction remained absolute.

But it was purely in the discretion of the court to permit the approver thus to appeal or not; and, in fact, this course of admitting approvements hath been long disused. For the truth is, as Sir Matthew Hale observes, that more mischief arose to good men by these kinds of approvements, upon false and malicious accusations of desperate villains, than benefit to the public by the discovery and conviction of real offenders; and, therefore, in the times when such appeals were admitted, great strictness and nicety were held therein (*q*).]

It has also been usual for justices of the peace, by whom persons charged with felony are committed to gaol, in cases where it has appeared probable that the evidence would otherwise be insufficient to obtain a conviction, to hold out a hope to some one of their accomplices, that if he will fairly disclose the whole truth as a witness on the trial, and bring the other offenders to justice, he shall himself escape punishment. Such an accomplice is usually said to be admitted to become *king's evidence;* but his admission in that capacity requires the subsequent sanction of the judges of gaol delivery (*r*), nor will a person in general be admitted as king's evidence, if it appear that he is

(*q*) 2 Hale, P. C. c. 29; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 24.

(*r*) *R.* v. *Rudd* (1775), Cowp. 331.

charged with any other felony than the one in question (*s*). The testimony of an accomplice is in all cases, indeed, regarded with just suspicion (*t*) ; and unless his statement be corroborated in some material part by unimpeachable evidence, the jury are usually directed by the judge to acquit the prisoner (*u*). Still the jury may legally convict on the unsupported testimony of an accomplice (*x*). Moreover, if a felon, after having confessed the crime and been admitted as king's evidence, fails in the condition on which he was so received, and refuses to give the jury, on the trial of his accomplice, such fair and full information as shall be in his knowledge, he is then himself liable to be tried for the offence, and may be convicted on his own confession (*y*).

(*s*) 2 Car. & P. 411 ; *R.* v. *Lee* (1818), Russ. & R. 361 ; *R.* v. *Brunton* (1821), *ib.* 454.

(*t*) Holt, C. J., in *Charnock's Case* (1698), 12 St. Tri. 1377.

(*u*) Taylor, *Evidence* (9th edit.), p. 633 ; *R.* v. *Addis* (1834), 6 Car. & P. 388; *R.* v. *Webb* (1834), *ib.* 595; *R.* v. *Moores* (1836), 7 Car. & P. 270; *R.* v. *Wilkes* (1836), *ib.* 272 ; *Despard's Case* (1803), 28 St. Tri. 345.

(*x*) *R.* v. *Hastings* (1835), 7 Car. & P. 152 ; *R.* v. *Stubbs* (1855), Dears. C. C. 555.

(*y*) Accordingly, upon a trial at York before Mr. Justice Buller, the accomplice denied in his evidence all that he had before confessed, and the prisoner was acquitted ; but the judge ordered an indictment to be preferred against the accomplice for the same crime. And on his previous confession, and other circumstances, he was convicted and executed.

CHAPTER XVII.

OF PLEA AND ISSUE.

[We are now to consider the plea of the defendant, or the matter alleged by him by way of defence on his arraignment. This is either—I. A plea to the jurisdiction ; or II. A demurrer ; or III. A plea in abatement ; or IV. A special plea in bar ; or V. The general issue (*a*).

I. *A Plea to the Jurisdiction* is, where an indictment is taken before a court that hath no cognizance of the

(*a*) Besides these pleas, there were formerly the *declinatory* pleas of *benefit of clergy* and of *sanctuary* (2 Hale, P. C. 236) ; the former of which was pleaded in bar of execution only, and has long been abolished, and the latter existed in England from a period soon after the conversion of the Saxons to Christianity (Reeves, *Hist. Eng. Law*, vol. i. p. 19 ; vol. iii. p. 137 ; vol. iv. pp. 182, 314, 320), and is thus described by Blackstone (vol. iv. p. 326) :—"If a person "accused of any crime, except "treason or sacrilege, had fled "to any church or churchyard, "and (within forty days after) "went in sack-cloth and confessed "himself guilty before the coroner, "and declared all the particular "circumstances of the offence, and "took the oath in that case pro-"vided, viz., that he abjured the "realm, and would depart from "thence forthwith at the port "which should be assigned to him, "and would never return without "leave from the king, he by this "means saved his life ; provided "he observed the conditions of "the oath, by going with a cross "in his hand, and with all con-"venient speed, to the port as-"signed, and embarking." (Mirr. c. 1, s. 13; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 32.) However, the immunity of sanctuaries, which comprised not only churches and churchyards, but certain other places, in various parts of the kingdom (Westminster, Wells, Norwich, York, &c.), became very much abridged by the statutes 26 Hen. 8 (1534), c. 13 ; 27 Hen. 8 (1535), c. 19 ; and 32 Hen. 8 (1540), c. 12 ; and by the statute 21 Jac. 1 (1623), c. 28, all privilege of sanctuary, as well as abjuration, with its incidents of attainder of blood and forfeiture of goods (Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 9, s. 44), was also abolished.

[offence ; as if a man be indicted for treason at the quarter sessions. And in such or in similar cases, he may except to the jurisdiction of the court without answering at all to the crime alleged (*b*).] But a formal plea to the jurisdiction is of rare occurrence, it being competent to a defendant to bring forward this sort of objection, in some cases by way of demurrer, or by motion in arrest of judgment, and in others, under the general issue (*c*).

II. *A Demurrer.*—[This arises when the facts as alleged in the indictment or information are allowed to be true, but the person accused takes exception to the sufficiency of the charge on the face of it ; as if he insists that the facts stated are no felony, treason, or whatever the crime is alleged to be. Thus, for instance, if a man be indicted for *feloniously* stealing a greyhound,—which is an animal not the subject of larceny at common law, and the stealing whereof is not made felony by any statute, but only a misdemeanor,—in this case, the party indicted may demur to the indictment, denying it to be felony, though he confesses the act of taking the animal. If on demurrer to an indictment, for matter of substance, the point of law be adjudged *for* the defendant, the judgment is that he be discharged (*d*) ; and on the other hand, if the judgment be *against* the defendant, such judgment for the Crown is final (*e*), though it has been thought by some, that the accused should be allowed to plead over the general issue "not guilty," and, in some cases, he has been allowed to demur and to plead not guilty at the same time (*f*). But, owing chiefly to the power which the defendant has of

(*b*) 2 Hale, P. C. 256 ; *R.* v. *Keyn* (1876), 2 Ex. D. 63.

(*c*) *R.* v. *Fearnley* (1786), 1 T. R. 316 ; *R.* v. *Johnson* (1805), 6 East, 583.

(*d*) 1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 443, 444 ; Andr. 147

(*e*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 31, s. 7 ; Bro. *Peremptory*, 86 ; 3 Staundf. 150, C. ; 2 Inst. 178 ; 2 Hale, P. C. 257 ; *R.* v. *Fuderman* (1850), 1 Den. 565.

(*f*) *R.* v. *Phelps* (1841), Car. & M. 180 ; *R.* v. *Adams* (1842), *ib.* 299 ; *R.* v. *Purchase* (1842), *ib.* 617.

[urging substantial objections to the indictment upon the general issue of "not guilty," or by motion in arrest of judgment, demurrers are now seldom used; though occasionally, *e.g.*, where the matter of objection would be *aided* (*i.e.*, removed) by an adverse verdict (*g*), a demurrer should be put in. And objections in the nature of demurrers are not unfrequently taken at this early stage, in another and more summary shape, viz., by a motion on the part of the prisoner to *quash* the indictment (*h*), a course which (in a very clear and obvious case) the practice of the courts allows (*i*). But the power of bringing forward objections to the indictment at any later period, is materially limited by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851 (*k*), which provides that all objections for *formal* defects shall be taken by demurrer or motion to quash the indictment, and not afterwards; and any merely formal defect may be amended forthwith by order of the court.

III. [*A Plea in Abatement.*—This is a plea which is, in general, founded on some matter of fact extraneous to the indictment, tending to show that it was defective in point of form; and such plea has principally occurred in the case of a *misnomer*, *i.e.*, a wrong name, or a false addition to the defendant, as where James Allen, gentleman, has been indicted by the name of John Allen, esquire, and has pleaded that he has the name of James and not of John, and that he is a gentleman and not an esquire.] But in the case of misnomer, no advantage at all now accrues to the defendant by a plea in abatement; for, by the Criminal Law Act, 1826, section 19, no indictment or information shall be abated by reason of any dilatory plea of misnomer,

(*g*) *Heymann* v. *The Queen* (1873), L. R. 8 Q. B. 102; *R.* v. *Goldsmith* (1873), L. R. 2 C. C. R. 74; *Bradlaugh* v. *The Queen* (1878), 3 Q. B. D. 607.

(*h*) *R.* v. *Wilson* (1844), 6 Q. B. 620; *R.* v. *Heane* (1864), 4 B. & Sm. 947.

(*i*) 1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 299.

(*k*) Sects. 24, 25.

but if the court shall be satisfied, by affidavit or otherwise, of the truth of such plea, it shall forthwith cause the indictment or information to be amended according to the truth; and shall call upon the party to plead thereto, and shall proceed as if no such dilatory plea had been pleaded. And by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, section 24, no indictment shall be held insufficient for want of or imperfection in the addition of any defendant.

IV. [*A Special Plea in Bar.*—This is a substantial plea, and goes to the merits of the indictment, and gives a reason why the prisoner ought to be discharged from the prosecution. Pleas in bar are principally of four kinds (*l*),—a former acquittal, a former conviction, a former attainder, or a pardon. We shall speak of each of these in order.

1. The plea of a former acquittal (*autrefois acquit*) is grounded on this universal maxim of the common law, that no man is to be brought into jeopardy more than once for the same offence (*m*). Hence, when a man is once fairly found not guilty upon an indictment or other prosecution, before any court having a competent jurisdiction of the offence, he may plead such acquittal in bar of any subsequent accusation for the same crime (*n*).] This, however, applies only to an acquittal by verdict of a petty jury (*o*) ; and therefore, if a man be committed to take his trial for a crime at some particular assizes or sessions whereat no bill is preferred against him, he is still liable

(*l*) In the particular case where a parish is indicted for not repairing a road, or a county for not repairing a bridge, another kind of special plea in bar occurs ; for the parish or county may respectively plead, in discharge of their presumptive liability, that some other party is liable to a special obligation to repair.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Taylor* (1824), 3 B. & C. 502.

(*n*) *Beak* v. *Thyrwhit* (1688), 3 Mod. 194 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 35, s. 10.

(*o*) 2 Hale, P. C. 243, 246 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 35, s. 6 ; *R.* v. *Charlesworth* (1861), 1 B. & Sm. 460.

to be indicted, at a subsequent assizes or sessions, for the same crime. And if the bill against him be thrown out by the grand jury, or if the petty jury having him in charge be discharged by the judge before verdict (*p*), he is in either case liable to be indicted again (*q*). The doctrine applies also, only to the case where the first indictment was not substantially erroneous ; for if it were, the former prosecution is no bar, because the defendant was never legally in jeopardy (*r*). In general, also, the crime of which the defendant was before acquitted must be identical with that with which he now stands charged ; but upon this point, distinctions of much nicety arise,—*e.g.*, if a man be acquitted upon an indictment of murder ; he may not only plead *autrefois acquit* to a subsequent indictment for the murder, but even to an indictment for the manslaughter of the same person. Or *è converso*, if he be indicted for manslaughter, and be acquitted, he shall not be indicted for the same death, as murder ; for the two cases differ only in the degree of guilt, and the fact of felonious homicide is the same (*s*). And so, if he be indicted for a murder, as having been committed on a certain day, and be afterwards indicted again for the murder of the same person on a different day, he may plead *autrefois acquit*, and aver it to be the same felony ; for the day is not material (*t*). On the other hand, if a man be indicted as accessory, and acquitted, that acquittal will be no bar to an indictment as principal ; nor *è converso*. It was formerly doubted, indeed, whether he might not plead an acquittal as principal to a second indictment charging him as accessory before the fact ; but the general doctrine is now held to apply to that case also. For though the offence may in some respects be considered as

(*p*) *Winsor* v. *The Queen* (1866), L. R. 1 Q. B. 289.

(*q*) 1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 458 ; 2 Hale, P. C. *ubi supra*.

(*r*) 4 Rep. 45, a ; 2 Hale, P. C. 393 ; *R.* v. *Green* (1856), 26 L. J. M. C. 17.

(*s*) 2 Hale, P. C. 246.

(*t*) *Ibid.* 244.

the same, the prisoner may be convicted under the second indictment, upon facts which would not have warranted his conviction under the first (*u*). And we may here observe, that a defendant who adopts this plea of *autrefois acquit*, usually pleads also at the same time the general issue, denying the felony charged; and if the former plea is found against him, the trial proceeds upon the second (*x*).

2. [The plea of a former conviction (*autrefois convict*) for the same identical crime, is also a good plea in bar to an indictment. And this depends upon the same principle as the former, that no man ought to be twice brought into danger for one and the same crime (*y*); and it is governed, in general, by the same rules (*a*).] But if the former conviction was for a capital offence, and followed by an actual judgment of death, the regular form of this defence is,—

3. The plea of a former attainder (*autrefois attaint*) for the same crime; for this, also, is a good plea in bar, depending upon the same principles, and governed in general by the same rules, as the plea of *autrefois convict*. This plea indeed was at one time of wider application than a plea of *autrefois convict* simply; for it might have been pleaded where a man, after being attainted of one felony, was afterwards indicted for *another* offence. For, the prisoner being considered as dead in law by the first attainder, and having therefore already forfeited all that he had, it was considered absurd and superfluous to

(*u*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 35, s. 11; 2 Hale, P. C. 244; Fost. 361; *R.* v. *Birchenough* (1836), 7 Car. & P. 575; *R.* v. *Parry* (1837), *id.* 836.

(*x*) Arch. *Cr. Pleading* (22nd ed.), p. 159; *R.* v. *Sheen* (1827), 2 Car. & P. 634; *R.* v. *Bird* (1851), 20 L. J. M. C. 70.

(*y*) Accordingly, a defence in the nature of a plea of *autrefois convict* applies also to offences prosecuted by some method other than indictment, as by way of summary conviction (*Wemyss* v. *Hopkins* (1875), L. R. 10 Q. B. 378).

(*a*) Hawk. P. C b. 2, c. 36, s. 10.

endeavour to attaint him a second time (*b*). But afterwards, by the Criminal Law Act, 1827, section 4, it was enacted, that no plea setting forth any attainder should be pleaded in bar of any indictment, unless the attainder were for the same offence as that charged in the indictment.

4. [Lastly, a PARDON may be pleaded in bar of the indictment (as well as at a later stage), as at once destroying its end and purpose, by remitting that punishment which the prosecution is calculated to inflict. In capital offences, there was formerly one advantage that used to attend pleading a pardon in bar, or in arrest of judgment, *before* sentence was passed, which gave it by much the preference to pleading it *after* sentence or attainder. This was, that, by stopping the judgment, it stopped the attainder ; and prevented that corruption of blood, which used to follow in certain cases on conviction, and which could not afterwards be purged except by Act of Parliament. But there is now, as we shall see hereafter, no such thing as corruption of blood ; and as a pardon is pleadable (according to the period at which it is obtained) not only in bar of the indictment, but, after verdict, in arrest of judgment, or, after judgment, in bar of execution, the further consideration of pardons shall be reserved, till we have gone through every other title except only that of execution (*c*).

But before we conclude this head of special pleas in bar, it is proper to observe, that if a special plea of a prisoner charged with *felony* shall be found against him upon an issue tried by a jury, or shall be adjudged against him in point of law by the court, still he shall not be concluded or convicted thereon, but shall have judgment of *respondeat ouster*, *i.e.*, he may proceed to plead over to the felony the general issue, not guilty (*d*). For the law allows

(*b*) 4 Bl. Com. 330; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 36.

(*c*) *Vide post*, c. XXI.

(*d* 2 Hale P. C. 239 ; *R.* v. *Gibson* (1806), 8 East, 107 ; *R.* v. *Taylor* (1824), 3 B. & C. 502.

[many pleas by which a prisoner may escape the punishment of felony, but only one plea in consequence whereof it can be inflicted, viz., on the general issue, after an impartial examination and decision of the facts, by the unanimous verdict of a jury.

V. *The General Issue*, that is to say, the plea of *not guilty*, remains therefore to be considered. This is the proper plea, wherever the prisoner means either to deny or to justify the charge in the indictment ; but it is to be observed, that if the charge be of treason or felony, there can be no special plea of justification. Thus, on an indictment for murder, a man cannot plead that the killing was in his own defence, against a robber ; but he must plead the general issue, not guilty, and give this special matter in evidence. For, besides that such pleas do in effect amount to the general issue, since, if true, the prisoner is most clearly not guilty,—inasmuch as the facts in treason are laid to be done *proditoriè et contra ligeantiæ suæ debitum*, and in felony, to be done *felonicè*,—the charges of a traitorous or felonious intent are the point and very *gist* of the indictment, and must be answered directly by the general negative, not guilty. The effect of which is, that on the one hand it puts the prosecutor to the proof of every material fact he has alleged, and on the other it entitles the defendant to avail himself of every ground of defence, as amply as if he had pleaded it in a specific form ; so that this is, in every respect, the most advantageous plea for the prisoner (*e*).]

By the plea of not guilty, the prisoner puts himself upon his trial by jury (*f*) ; and when the record comes afterwards to be made up,—for the proceedings ought regularly to be *recorded*,—the prosecutor on the part of the Crown adds the *similiter* (as it is called), by the words that he "doth the like." But even before this formal entry,

(*e*) 2 Hale, P. C. 258.

(*f*) Criminal Law Act, 1827, s. 1.

the similiter is supposed to be added by the prosecutor, immediately on the plea of not guilty being pleaded by the defendant (*g*), which brings the parties to issue ; and then they proceed, as soon as conveniently may be, to the trial, the manner of which will be considered at large in the next chapter.

(*g*) When the prisoner pleaded not guilty (*non culpabilis*, or *nient culpable*), this plea was abbreviated on the minutes of the court thus —"*non* (or *nient*) *cul.*"; and the joining of issue thereon by the prosecutor was expressed by the abbreviation "*prit.*" *i.e.*, *paratus*, or ready to prove him so. In course of time, when the real meaning of these abbreviations was beginning to be forgotten, owing to the disuse of law-French, the officer of the court, in reading the words, began to apply them to the prisoner himself, saying, "*Culprit*, how wilt thou be tried?"; which is commonly believed to be the origin of the word "culprit" as applied to the accused. Dr. Murray (*New English Dictionary, sub voc.* "culprit") is disposed to accept this derivation. The first recorded use of the word is in the trial of the Earl of Pembroke for murder in 1678 (6 St. Tr. 1320).

CHAPTER XVIII.

OF TRIAL AND CONVICTION.

[The methods of criminal trial were formerly more numerous than at present; through the superstition of our Saxon ancestors, who, like other northern nations, were extremely addicted to divination (*a*). They therefore invented a considerable number of methods of purgation or trial, to preserve innocence from the danger of false witnesses, and in consequence of a notion that God would always interpose miraculously to vindicate the guiltless. These extraordinary methods of trial have been long abolished, yet some notice is due to them, on account of their legal and historical associations.

I. *The Obsolete Modes of Trial.*—These were (1) Ordeal; (2) Corsned; and (3) Battle.

(1.) *Ordeal* was the most antient of these obsolete modes of trial (*b*); and it was peculiarly distinguished by the appellation of *judicium Dei*, and sometimes *vulgaris purgatio*, to distinguish it from the canonical purgation, which was by the oath of the party. Ordeal was of two sorts, either *fire*-ordeal, or *water*-ordeal; the former being confined to persons of higher rank, the latter to the common people (*c*). Both might be performed by deputy, but

(*a*) Tac. *De Mor. Germ.* 10.

(*b*) Wilk. *Leges Ang.-Sax.* LL. Inæ, c. 77; Turn. *Ang.-Sax.* vol. ii. p. 532; Hall. *Mid. Ages*, vol. ii. p. 466.

(*c*) "*Tenetur se purgare is qui "accusatur, per Dei judicium; "scilicet, per calidum ferrum, vel "per aquam, pro diversitate con- "ditionis hominum: per ferrum "calidum, si fuerit homo liber; "per aquam, si fuerit rusticus.*"—Glanv. bk. 14, c. 1. See also Mirrour, c. 3, s. 23.

[the principal was to answer for the success or failure of the trial (*d*). Fire-ordeal was performed either by taking up in the hand a piece of red-hot iron, of one, two, or three pounds weight, or else by walking, bare foot and blindfold, over nine red-hot ploughshares, laid lengthwise, at unequal distances ; and if the party escaped being hurt, he was adjudged innocent, but if it happened otherwise, he was adjudged guilty. By this latter method, Queen Emma, the mother of Edward the Confessor, is mentioned to have cleared her character, when she was suspected of familiarity with Alwyn, Bishop of Winchester (*e*). On the other hand, water-ordeal was performed, either by plunging the bare arm up to the elbow in boiling water, and escaping unhurt thereby ; or by casting the person suspected into a river or pond of cold water, where if he floated without any act of swimming, it was deemed an evidence of his guilt, but if he sank, he was acquitted. It is easy to trace out the traditional relics of this water-ordeal, in the ignorant barbarity that has been practised in many countries, to discover witches by casting them into a pool of water, and drowning them to prove their innocence. And in the eastern empire, the fire-ordeal was used to the same purpose by the Emperor Theodore Lascaris ; who, attributing his sickness to magic, caused all those whom he suspected, to handle the hot iron ; thus joining, as has been well remarked, to the most dubious crime in the world the most dubious proof of innocence (*f*).

And indeed this purgation by ordeal seems to have been universal, in the times of superstitious barbarity. It was known to the antient Greeks ; for, in the Antigone of Sophocles, a person suspected by Creon of a misdemeanor declares himself ready "to handle hot iron and to "walk over fire," in order to manifest his innocence,

(*d*) Compare the common expression — "going through fire "and water to serve another."

(*e*) Rudborne, *Hist. Maj. Winton.* l. 4, c. 1.

(*f*) Montesquieu, *Esprit*, b. 12, c. 5.

[which (the scholiast tells us) was then a very usual purgation (*g*). And Grotius gives us many instances of water-ordeal in Bithynia, Sardinia, and other places (*h*).

One cannot but be astonished at the folly and impiety of pronouncing a man guilty, unless cleared by a miracle, and of expecting that all the powers of nature should be suspended, by an immediate interposition of Providence to save the innocent, whenever it was presumptuously required. And yet, in England, so late as King John's time, we find grants to the bishops and clergy, to use the *judicium ferri, aquæ, et ignis* (*i*) ; and both in England and in Sweden, the clergy presided at this trial, which was only performed in the churches or in other consecrated grounds (*k*). But the canon law very early declared against trial by ordeal, or *vulgaris purgatio*, as being an invention of the devil, "*cum sit contra præceptum Domini*, "*non tentabis Dominum Deum tuum*" (*l*). And upon this authority, though the canons themselves were of no validity in England, it was thought proper to disuse and abolish this trial entirely in our courts of justice ; by an Act of Parliament in the third year of Henry the Third, according to Sir Edward Coke (*m*), though it seems rather to have been by an order of the king in council (*n*).

(2.) Another species of purgation was the *Corsned*, or morsel of execration, being a piece of cheese or bread, of about an ounce in weight, which was consecrated with a form of exorcism, desiring of the Almighty that it might cause convulsions and paleness, and find no passage, if the man was really guilty, but might turn to health and nourishment if he was innocent (*o*) ; as the water of

(*g*) v. 270.

(*h*) Grot. on Numb. v. 17; *Mod. Univ. Hist.* vii. 266.

(*i*) Spelm. *Gloss.* 435.

(*k*) Stiernh. *De Jure Sueon.* l. 1, c. 8.

(*l*) Decret. part 2, caus. 2, qu. 5, dist. 7; Decret. lib. 3, tit. 50, c. 9; and Gloss. *ibid.*

(*m*) 9 Rep. 32; *Mod. Univ. Hist.* xxxii. 105.

(*n*) 1 Rym. *Fœd.* 228; Spelm. *Gloss.* 326; 2 Prin. Rec. Append. 20; Seld. *Eadm.* fol. 48.

(*o*) Spelm. *Gloss.* 439.

[jealousy, among the Jews, was, by God's special appointment, to cause the belly to swell, and the thigh to rot, if the woman was guilty of adultery (*p*). This corsned, then, was given to the suspected person, who at the same time also received the holy sacrament (*q*); and we are informed, though on very feeble authority, that Godwin, Earl of Kent, in the reign of King Edward the Confessor, abjuring the death of the king's brother, at last appealed to his corsned, which stuck in his throat and killed him (*r*). This custom has long since fallen into complete disuse, though the remembrance of it still subsists, in certain phrases of abjuration retained among the common people (*s*).

(3.) The trial by *Battle, duel, or single combat* (*t*), was another species of presumptuous appeal to Providence, under an expectation that Heaven would unquestionably give the victory to the innocent or injured party. The first written injunction of judiciary combats that we meet with, is in the laws of Gundobald, A.D. 501, which are preserved in the Burgundian code; yet it does not seem to have been a local custom of this or that particular tribe, but to have been the common usage of all the northern people from the earliest times (*u*).] This species of trial used to obtain not only in appeals on criminal charges (*x*), and in approvements (*y*), but also in the antient but now abolished civil action called a writ of

(*p*) Numb. v.

(*q*) "*Si quis alteri ministran-*
"*tium accusetur et amicis destitutus*
"*sit cum sacramentales non habeat,*
"*mittat ad judicium quod Anglice*
"*dicitur* 'corsned,' *et fiat sicut*
"*Deus velit, nisi super sanctum*
"*corpus Domini permittatur ut se*
"*purget.*"—Wilk. *Leges Ang.-Sax.* LL. Canut. c. 6.

(*r*) Ingulph.

(*s*) As "I will take the sacra-
"ment upon it"; "May this
"morsel be my last"; and the like.

(*t*) Hallam, *Mid. Ages*, vol. i. pp. 277—294.

(*u*) Seld. *Duels*, c. 5; Stiern. *de Jure Sueon.* l. 1, c. 7.

(*x*) *Vide sup.* p. 337.

(*y*) 2 Hale, P. C. 233.

right, which formerly was the only action by which property in land could be vindicated (*z*).

[In an appeal or approvement on a *criminal* charge, the trial by battle, if demanded by the appellee, was carried on with equal solemnity, as when it was waged in a writ of right; but with this difference, that there each party might hire a champion, but here they must fight in their own proper persons. And therefore if the appellant or approver were a woman, a priest, an infant, or of the age of sixty, or lame or blind, he or she might counterplead, and refuse this method of trial; and might compel the appellee to put himself upon the country, that is, submit to trial by jury. Also peers of the realm, bringing an appeal, were not to be challenged to wage battle, on account of the dignity of their persons; nor the citizens of London, by special charter, because fighting was foreign to their education and employment. So likewise, if the crime were notorious, as if the thief were taken with the *mainour*, or the murderer in the room with the bloody knife, the appellant might counterplead and refuse the tender of battle from the appellee (*a*); for it was unreasonable, that an innocent man should stake his life against one who was already half convicted.

Upon a trial by battle in a criminal case, the oaths of the two combatants were vastly striking and solemn (*b*). The appellee, when appealed of felony, pleaded not guilty, and threw down his glove, declaring he would defend the same with his body; and the appellant took up the glove, and replied that he was ready to make good his appeal,

(*z*) *Vide sup.* vol. III. p. 411. The last occasion on which trial by battle in a *writ of right* was awarded, of which we have any authentic account, was in the 13 Eliz. in the year 1571 (Dyer, 301); Blackstone, however (vol. iii. p. 338), refers to a later trial by battle, which he states was waged in the county palatine of Durham in 1638 (Cro. Car. 512).

(*a*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 45, s. 7.

(*b*) Flet. l. 1, c. 34; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 45.

[body for body. Thereupon the appellee, taking the book in his right hand, and in his left the right hand of his antagonist, swore to this effect: "Hear this, O man, "whom I hold by the hand, who callest thyself John by "the name of baptism, that I, who call myself Thomas by "the name of baptism, did not feloniously murder thy "father, William by name, nor am any way guilty of the "said felony. So help me God and the saints: and this "I will defend against thee by my body, as this court "shall award." To which the appellant replied, holding the Bible and his antagonist's hand in the same manner as the other: "Hear this, O man, whom I hold by the "hand, who callest thyself Thomas by the name of baptism, "that thou art perjured; and therefore perjured, because "that thou feloniously didst murder my father, William "by name. So help me God and the saints: and this will "I prove against thee by my body, as this court shall "award" (*c*). The battle was then fought, with the same weapons, the same solemnities, and the same oaths against amulets and sorcery, that were used in the civil combat. And if the appellee were so far vanquished as not to be able or willing to fight any longer, he was adjudged to be hanged immediately; and then, as also if he were slain in the battle, Providence was deemed to have determined against him, and his blood was attainted. But if he killed the appellant, or could maintain the fight from sun rising till the stars appeared in the evening, he was acquitted. So also, if the appellant became recreant, and pronounced the word "craven," he lost his *liberam legem*, and became infamous; and the appellee recovered his damages, and

(*c*) There is a striking resemblance between this process and that of the court of Arcopagus, at Athens, for murder; wherein the prosecutor and prisoner were both sworn in the most solemn manner,—the prosecutor, that he was related to the deceased (for none but near relatives were permitted to prosecute in that court), and that the prisoner was the cause of the death; and the prisoner, that he was innocent of the charge against him. (Pott. *Antiq.* b. 1, c. 19.)

[was for ever quit, not only of the appeal, but of all indictments likewise for the same offence.]

It is not a little singular, that this method of trial remained a part of our legal system till the early part of the last century; for a case actually occurred in the year 1818, in which, an appeal of murder having been brought by the brother of the deceased, the party accused (who had already been acquitted on an ordinary indictment) demanded a trial by battle. Nothing further was, however, done in the matter, the proceedings being discontinued by the appellant (*d*); and the trial by battle itself was finally abolished by statute in the year 1819 (*e*).

II. *The Existing Modes of Trial.*—These are (1) Trial in Parliament, or in the court of the Lord High Steward; and (2) Trial by jury.

(1.) And as regards the *Trial of Peers*, whether [in the court of Parliament, (or in the court of the Lord High Steward,) when a peer, or peeress, is charged with any treason or felony, or misprision of either, enough has already been said in a former chapter (*f*). And we shall only add now, that in its proceedings, this mode of trial differs but little from the trial by jury, of which we are about to speak, except that no special verdict can be here given, because the lords of parliament, or the Lord High Steward, if the trial be had in his court, are judges sufficiently competent of the law that may arise from the fact; and except, also, that the peers need not all agree in their verdict, but the greater number, consisting of twelve at the least, will conclude and bind the minority (*g*).

(2.) *Trial by Jury.*—Trial by jury, or by the country (*per patriam*), is that trial by his "peers" (*pares*), which is secured to every Englishman by the Great Charter;

(*d*) *Ashford* v. *Thornton* (1818), 1 B. & Ald. 405.

(*e*) 59 Geo. 3, c. 46.

(*f*) *Ante*, pp. 259—263.

(*g*) Kel. 56; 7 & 8 Will. 3 (1695), c. 3, s. 11; Fost. 247.

[" *nullus liber homo capiatur, vel imprisonetur, aut exuletur,* " *aut aliquo alio modo destruatur, nisi per legale judicium* " *parium suorum, vel per legem terræ* " (*h*). The excellence of this method of trial is even more apparent in criminal than in civil cases ; for besides that the judges themselves are thereby relieved from what would otherwise have been the intolerable anxiety of convicting on capital charges, and afterwards sentencing the offender to death, a bulwark in case of need is also thereby raised between the Crown and the subject, which the Crown may not pass over, or knock down or disregard, save with the prior finding or allowance of the jury. And with excellent forecast, the founders of the English law have contrived, that no man shall be called to answer to the Crown for any capital crime, unless upon the preparatory accusation of twelve or more of his fellow-subjects, the grand jury ; and that the truth of every accusation, whether preferred in the shape of indictment or information, shall afterwards be brought to trial and confirmed by the unanimous suffrage of twelve of the equals and neighbours of the person accused, indifferently chosen, and superior to all suspicion.

What has been already said of juries in general, and the trial thereby in civil cases, will greatly shorten our present remarks with regard to the trial of *criminal* indictments and informations. And it is in the first place to be mentioned, that when a prisoner has pleaded *not guilty*,] the next step is to impanel and swear, for the purposes of the trial, a jury, called a *petty* jury, consisting of twelve persons of the county (*i*), whose qualification is the same as that of jurors in civil causes ; but the rule is, that no person who was of the grand jury by which the bill was

(*h*) [It need hardly, perhaps, be pointed out, that this venerable theory, though consecrated by the acceptance of a long series of writers, has no foundation in historical fact. The trial *per pares* of the Great Charter is the feudal trial by the men of the fief, which was afterwards *superseded* by trial by jury.—E. J.]

(*i*) 2 Hale, P. C. 264 ; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 40.

found, shall be competent to sit upon the petty jury (*k*). If the proceedings are before the King's Bench Division of the High Court, an interval elapses between the plea and the trial; and during such interval, process issues for summoning a jury, as in civil causes, and the trial is then either at bar (*l*) or at *nisi prius*. But if the trial is at the assizes or sessions, it has always been usual to try persons charged with felony immediately after their arraignment (*m*); and although it was not formerly customary, (unless by consent of the parties, or where the defendant was actually in gaol,) to try the persons charged only with misdemeanors, at the same assizes or sessions in which they had pleaded *not guilty* to the indictment, the rule is now made uniform, the Criminal Procedure Act, 1851, section 27, having provided, that no person prosecuted shall be entitled as of right to *traverse*, (that is, to postpone,) the trial of any indictment found against him at any session of the peace, or of oyer and terminer, or of gaol delivery (*n*). But if the court is of opinion, that he ought to be allowed a further time, either to prepare his defence or otherwise, it may adjourn the trial to the next assizes or sessions, on such terms as to bail or otherwise, as shall seem meet, and may respite the recognizances of the prosecutor's witnesses accordingly.

Where the record is in the King's Bench Division of the High Court, the trial may, by leave of the court, be before a *special* jury, even in the case of misdemeanors; but a special jury is not allowed in trials at the sessions or assizes. Formerly, in cases of trial for treason, the prisoner was subject to special hardships, but now, owing

(*k*) 25 Edw. 3 (1351), st. 5, c. 3.

(*l*) On an information *ex officio*, the attorney-general is entitled to demand a trial at bar, if he thinks proper (1 Chit. *Cr. L.* 848).

(*m*) 2 Hale, P. C. 263; 2 Arch. Just. 18; Juries Act, 1825, s. 13; Criminal Law Act, 1826, s. 21; Common Law Procedure Act, 1852, s. 105.

(*n*) To *traverse* properly signifies to plead in denial; but, in the practice of the criminal courts, the word has been ordinarily thus used in connection with a postponement of the trial.

to the provisions of various statutes (*o*), the only substantial difference between the proceedings in trials for treason and other offences are all in favour of the prisoner, *e.g.*, that he cannot (except where the treason alleged is an attempt to assassinate or injure the person of the monarch) be tried more than three years after the commission of the offence, that he is entitled as of right to a copy of the indictment and the jury list, and so on.

[When the trial is called on in court, the jurors, as they appear, are to be sworn, or else duly to affirm (*p*) to the number of twelve; unless they are challenged by the party. Challenges may be made, either on the part of the Crown, or on the part of the prisoner; and either to the array or to the separate polls, and for the same reasons as in civil cases. For it is at least as necessary in criminal as in civil cases, that the sheriff or returning officer be totally indifferent; and that the particular jurors should be *omni exceptione majores*, not liable to objection, either *propter honoris respectum*, *propter defectum*, *propter affectum*, or *propter delictum*.] But the privilege formerly allowed to aliens, in civil as well as in criminal cases, of challenging the array, on the ground that the sheriff had not returned a jury *de medietate linguæ*, was taken away in the case of treason by 1 & 2 Ph. & M. (1554) c. 10; and though preserved by the Juries Act, 1825, section 47, in favour of persons indicted for felony or misdemeanor, it has now been taken away altogether by the Naturalization Act, 1870, which has enacted, that an alien shall not be entitled to be tried by a jury *de medietate linguæ*, but shall be triable in the same manner as if he were a natural-born subject (*q*).

[Challenges upon any of the foregoing accounts, are styled challenges *for cause;* which may be without stint

(*o*) Treason Acts, 1695, 1708, and 1842; Juries Act, 1825, s. 21.

(*p*) Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867, s. 8; Oaths Act, 1888.

(*q*) Sect. 5.

[in both criminal and civil trials (*r*). But in criminal cases, or at least in cases of felony, there is allowed to the prisoner an arbitrary and capricious species of challenge to a certain number of jurors, without showing any cause at all, which is called a *peremptory* challenge; a provision full of that tenderness and humanity to prisoners, for which our English laws are justly famous. This is grounded on two reasons: 1. As every man must be sensible, what sudden impressions and unaccountable prejudices we are apt to conceive upon the bare looks and gestures of another, and how necessary it is that a prisoner, when put to his defence, should have a good opinion of his jury, the want of which might totally disconcert him, the law wills not that he should be tried by any one man against whom he has conceived a prejudice, even without being able to assign a reason for his dislike; and 2. Because, upon challenges for cause shown, if the reason assigned prove insufficient to set aside the juror, perhaps the bare questioning his indifference may sometimes provoke a resentment. To prevent all ill consequences from which, the prisoner is still at liberty, if he pleases, to set him peremptorily aside.

This privilege of peremptory challenge, though granted to the prisoner, is denied to the Crown by the Juries Act, 1825, section 29; which, (repealing and re-enacting the former Act of 33 Edw. I. on the same subject,) provides, that the king shall challenge no jurors, without assigning a cause certain, to be tried and approved by the court. However, it is held, that the king need not assign his cause of challenge, till all the panel is gone through; nor unless there cannot be a full jury without the persons so challenged (*s*). And then and not sooner, the counsel for the

(*r*) Besides these challenges by the parties, the court itself is empowered to amend or enlarge the panels of jurors, by taking out the names of individuals and inserting others where necessary (Juries Act, 1825, s. 20, repealing the former Act of 3 Hen. 8 (1511), c. 12, on the same subject).

(*s*) In *Mansell* v. *The Queen* (1857), 8 El. & Bl. 54; 8 St. Tri. (N.S.) 831, the law, as here laid

[Crown must show cause; otherwise the juror shall be sworn (*t*), or (as the case may be) affirm.

The peremptory challenges of the prisoner must, however, have some reasonable boundary, otherwise he might never be tried; and the common law settled, that such reasonable boundary should be the number of thirty-five, or one under the number of three full juries (*u*). For the law judged, that five-and-thirty were fully sufficient to allow the most timorous man to challenge through mere caprice; and that he who peremptorily challenged a greater number, or three full juries, had no intention to be tried at all.] But, by the Juries Act, 1825, section 29 (repealing and re-enacting the former provisions of 22 Hen. VIII. (1530), c. 14, on the same subject), no person arraigned for murder or felony shall be admitted to any peremptory challenge above the number of twenty; which is also the extreme number in such cases of high treason as come under the provisions of the Treason Act, 1842, though in other kinds of high treason, the number remains thirty-five as at common law (*x*). And, by the Criminal Law Act, 1827, section 3, if any person indicted for treason, felony, or piracy shall challenge peremptorily a greater number of the jury than such person is entitled by law to challenge in any of the said cases, every such peremptory challenge beyond the number allowed by law,

down by Blackstone was confirmed; the Court of Queen's Bench observing, that neither by 33 Edw. I (Ordin. de Inquis.), nor by the Juries Act, 1825, was there any intention to take away "all power of peremptory challenge from the Crown, &c. "And the course has invariably "been to permit the Crown to "challenge without cause, till the "panel has been called over and "exhausted, and then to call over "the names of the jurors peremptorily challenged by the Crown, "and put the Crown to assign "cause; so that if twelve of those "upon the panel remain, as to "whom no just cause of exception "can be assigned, the trial may "proceed," &c.

(*t*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 43, s. 3; 2 Hale, P. C. 271.

(*u*) *Ibid.* 269.

(*x*) 1 & 2 Ph. & M. (1554), c. 10, s. 7; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 43, s. 8.

shall be entirely void, and the trial shall proceed as if no such challenge had been made.

If, by reason of challenges or the default of jurors, a sufficient number cannot be had of the original panel, a *tales* may be awarded, as in civil cases, supposing the prosecution to be in the King's Bench Division of the High Court (*y*); but if it be at the assizes or sessions, the course is for the court to order, *ore tenus*, a new panel to be returned *instanter* (*z*). When at last jurors to the proper number, and free from all exception, are obtained, they are sworn, or (at their option) affirm; and the form of oath in cases of felony (or wherever the defendant appears in person) is as follows: "You shall well and "truly try, and true deliverance make, between our "sovereign lord the king, and the prisoner at the bar, "whom you have in charge: and a true verdict give "according to the evidence. So help you God."

[When the jury is sworn, if it be a cause of any consequence, the indictment is usually opened, and the evidence marshalled, examined, and enforced, by the counsel for the prosecution. It was formerly the rule, that no counsel should be allowed the prisoner on his trial on any charge of felony, though it was otherwise in the case of a misdemeanor, unless some point of law should arise proper to be debated (*a*), though the judges made no scruple to

(*y*) Arch. *Pr.* (22nd ed.) p. 177.

(*z*) 4 Inst. 168; 4 St. Tr. 728.

(*a*) Sir E. Coke (3 Inst. 137) gives this reason for excluding counsel for the prisoner, "because "the evidence to convict a prisoner "should be so manifest as it cannot "be contradicted." And Lord Nottingham, when high steward, declared (3 St. Tr. 726), that this was the only good reason that could be given for it. Blackstone also thinks the old practice wrong in principle; and he adds, on the authority of the Mirrour (c. 3, s. 1), that counsel were allowed under the more ancient common law. Father Parsons, the Jesuit, and, after him, Bishop Ellys (*Of English Liberty*, vol ii. p. 66), have imagined, that the benefit of counsel to plead for them was first denied to prisoners by a law of Henry the First, meaning, apparently, chapters 47 and 48 of the code which is usually attributed to that prince. [The true origin of the rule probably was, that an

[allow a prisoner's counsel to instruct him what questions to ask, or even to ask questions for him with respect to matters of fact, and, as to matters of law, considered the prisoner as *entitled* to the assistance of counsel (*b*).] But, by the Treason Act, 1695, it was provided in the case of high treason generally, that he might make defence by counsel not exceeding two; and, by the Treason Act, 1746, the same indulgence was extended to *parliamentary impeachments* for treason, which had been excepted in the former Act. And now, by the Trials for Felony Act, 1836, the antient rule has been put aside altogether; and all persons tried for felonies, as well as for misdemeanors, are now admitted to make full answer and defence by their counsel, or (in courts where solicitors practise as advocates) by their solicitor.

The rules of *evidence* which prevail in courts of criminal judicature, are the same in most respects as those which obtain in trials in the civil courts, though there are some points of difference. With the view of assimilating these differences as far as possible, it was enacted, by the Criminal Procedure Act, 1865, that if a person on his trial for felony or misdemeanor should be defended by counsel (*c*), but not otherwise, it should be the duty of the presiding judge, at the close of the case for the prosecution, to ask such counsel whether he intended to adduce evidence; and in the event of his not thereupon announcing his intention to adduce evidence, the counsel for the prosecution should then be allowed to address the jury a second time in support of his case, for the purpose of summing up the evidence against the person on his trial; and that, upon every trial for felony or misdemeanor, the person

indictment by the grand jury proceeded on the notoriety of the guilt of the accused.—E. J.]

(*b*) 4 Bl. Com. p. 350.

(*c*) The word counsel in this Act is to be construed as applying to solicitors in all cases where they appear as advocates. (Criminal Procedure Act, 1865, s. 9.)

charged (or his counsel) should be allowed, if he should think fit, to open his defence, and, after the conclusion of such opening, to examine any witnesses he might think fit to call, and then to sum up his evidence. And a still greater assimilation has been effected by the Criminal Evidence Act, 1898, the provisions of which Act will be presently mentioned; but the rules as to summing up the evidence and as to the right of reply are not affected by these provisions, save that where the accused is the only witness called for the defence, that fact does not of itself confer on the prosecution the right of reply (*d*). [There are, however, some few points wherein a difference between civil and criminal evidence still exists, and principally the following:—

First, in all cases of treason and misprision of treason, by the 1 Edw. VI. (1547), c. 12, 5 & 6 Edw. VI. (1551), c. 11, and the Treason Act, 1695, *two* lawful witnesses are required to convict a prisoner, unless he shall willingly and without violence *confess* the charge. And, by the last-mentioned statute, it is declared, that both of such witnesses must be to the same overt act of treason, or one to one overt act, and the other to another overt act, of the same species of treason, and not of distinct heads or kinds; and that no evidence shall be admitted to prove any overt act, not expressly laid in the indictment (*e*). And therefore, in Sir John Fenwick's case, in King William the Third's time (where there was but one witness,) an Act of Parliament was made on purpose to attaint him of treason (*f*); and he was executed thereon (*g*). Again, in prosecutions for perjury, there can be no conviction except on the oath of two witnesses, though it will be sufficient that the perjury be directly proved by one witness, and that corroborative evidence on some particular

(*d*) *R.* v. *Rhodes*, [1899] 1 Q. B. 77; *R.* v. *Gardner*, *ib.* 150.

(*e*) Fost. 235.

(*f*) 8 & 9 Will. 3 (1696), c. 4.

(*g*) (1696), 13 St. Tri. 537.

[point be given by another (*h*) ;] and where the alleged perjury consists in the defendant's having contradicted what he himself swore on a former occasion, the testimony of a single witness in support of the defendant's own original statement will support a conviction (*i*). [But, in almost every other accusation, the oath of one positive witness will be sufficient, the exception being allowed in treason, in order to secure the subject more effectually from false accusation in a case so penal, and where there may be danger of his being made the victim of political oppression ; and being allowed in perjury, because it would not be reasonable to convict, where there is only one oath against another (*j*).]

Secondly, a confession of his guilt by the defendant is in general sufficient to support a conviction ; but this is only on the supposition that such confession is freely and voluntarily made, for, otherwise, it is not even admissible in evidence (*k*). If drawn from him, therefore, by means of any threat or promise, the confession cannot, in general, be received (*l*) ; and it is in no case evidence, except

(*h*) *R.* v. *Mayhew* (1834), 6 Car. & P. 315 ; *R.* v. *Parker* (1842), Car. & M. 639 ; *R.* v. *Hook* (1858), 27 L. J. M. C. 222.

(*i*) *R.* v. *Harris* (1822), 5 B. & Ald. 926.

(*j*) *R.* v. *Muscot* (1713), 10 Mod. 192; *Champney's Case* (1836), 2 Lew. C. C. 258 ; *In re Mennier*, [1894] 2 Q. B. 415. Montesquieu lays it down (*Esprit*, b. 12, c. 3), that those laws which condemn a man to death, *in any case*, on the deposition of a single witness, are fatal to liberty ; and he adds this reason, that the witness who affirms, and the accused who denies, make an equal balance, and that there is a necessity, therefore, to call in a third man to incline the scale. "But this," says Blackstone, "seems to be "carrying matters too far ; for "there are some crimes in which "the very privacy of their nature "excludes the possibility of hav-"ing more than one witness. "Neither, indeed," he adds, "is "the bare denial of the person "accused, equivalent to the posi-"tive oath of a disinterested "witness."

(*k*) *Parker* v. *Green* (1862), 2 B. & Sm. 299 ; *R.* v. *Fennell* (1881), 7 Q. B. D. 147.

(*l*) *R.* v. *Luckhurst* (1853), Dears. C. C. 245 ; *R.* v. *Sleeman* (1853), *ib.* 249 ; *R.* v. *Reers and Hancock* (1872), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 362 ; *R.* v. *Thompson*, [1893] 2 Q. B. 12.

against himself. If any part of a confession is used to establish the case on the part of the prosecution, the whole of it must be given in evidence; though the jury are at liberty to believe those parts which make against the defendant, and to disbelieve what he alleges in his own favour (*m*).

Thirdly, in a former volume it was mentioned in connection with civil actions, that, as the law now stands, neither the infamous character of a proposed witness, nor his being interested in the testimony he is about to give, prevents his being examined, but affects only his credibility; also, that the *parties* to the cause are now both competent and compellable to give evidence. However, that change in the law of evidence did not, in general, extend to criminal trials (*n*); though, in prosecutions under the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885, or under sections 48 and 52—55 of the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861 (being offences against the chastity of women and girls) the accused party was made a competent witness on his own behalf, although he is not therefore a compellable witness (*o*). But under the Criminal Evidence Act, 1898, the specific provisions of which will be presently stated, the accused is now enabled, in all prosecutions whatsoever, to give evidence on his or her own behalf.

Fourthly, the deposition or statement on oath of witnesses before magistrates, duly taken according to the provisions either of the Indictable Offences Act, 1848, section 17, or of the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867, section 6, may be produced at the trial, and given in evidence for or against the defendant, if the party who made the same be dead, or too ill to travel, or insane, or kept away by the prisoner. Or it may be given in contradiction of his evidence at the trial, if the deponent be called and

(*m*) *R.* v. *Clewes* (1830), 4 Car. & P. 221.

(*n*) *Parker* v. *Green* (1862), 2 B. & Sm. 299; *Bishop of Norwich* v. *Pearse* (1868), L. R. 2 Adm. & Ecc. 281.

(*o*) Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885, s. 20.

examined thereat as a witness (*p*). And a somewhat similar use may, under these statutes, be made of the prisoner's own statements made by him, after being duly cautioned, before the committing magistrate.

Fifthly, though, by the general rule of law, all hearsay evidence is excluded, yet on a charge of homicide it is the practice to admit testimony as to the dying declarations of the deceased, with respect to the cause of his death, it being first shown that such declarations were made under a sense of approaching dissolution (*q*).

Sixthly, though, by the Evidence Amendment Act, 1853, the husband or wife of any party to a legal proceeding, is now in most civil cases competent and compellable to give evidence on behalf of either or any of the parties, yet that provision did not extend either to compel or enable a husband to give evidence for or against his wife, or a wife to give evidence for or against her husband, in any *criminal* proceeding. But to the general rule that husbands and wives are not competent to testify for or against each other in criminal cases, there are these exceptions :— (1.) In treason, a wife may give evidence against her husband, because the tie of allegiance is paramount to all others ; (2.) Upon a charge of forcible abduction and marriage, or other violence to her person, the woman was always a competent witness against her husband (*r*) ; (3.) By the Evidence Act, 1877, on the trial of any indictment or proceeding for the non-repair of, or a nuisance to, any public highway river or bridge, or instituted *for the*

(*p*) *R.* v. *Scaife and Others* (1851), 17 Q. B. 238 ; *R.* v. *Upton St. Leonard's* (1847), 10 Q. B. 827 ; *R.* v. *Clements* (1851), 20 L. J. M. C. 193 ; *R.* v. *Beeston* (1854), Dears. C. C. 405 ; *R.* v. *Cockburn* (1857), 26 L. J. M. C. 136 ; *Austin's Case* (1856) (*per* Willes, J.), Dears. C. C. 612.

(*q*) *R.* v. *Hayward* (1833), 6 Car. & P. 157 ; *R.* v. *Perkins* (1840), 9 Car. & P. 395 ; *R.* v. *Reany* (1857), 26 L. J. M. C. 43 ; *R.* v. *Hind* (1860), 29 L. J. M. C. 147 ; *R.* v. *Jenkins* (1869), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 187 ; *R.* v. *Whitmarsh* (1898), 62 J. P. 680.

(*r*) 1 Phil. *Ev.* 71 ; *Lord Audley's Case* (1631), 3 St. Tr. 402.

purpose of trying and enforcing a civil right only, every defendant, and his or her wife or husband, were made admissible witnesses and were compellable to give evidence; (4.) By the Married Women's Property Acts, 1882 and 1884, every wife or husband was made competent to give evidence against the other in any criminal proceedings taken under the Act; (5.) By the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885 (*s*), upon any prosecution under that Act, or under sections 48 and 52—55 of the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861, the husband or wife of the person charged was made a *competent* witness on behalf of the accused, but was not *compellable* to give evidence, either for or against the accused; and (6.) There is the like provision in section 4 of the Explosive Substances Act, 1883, as regards prosecutions under that Act. These provisions are expressly preserved by the Criminal Evidence Act, 1898, to be presently mentioned.

Lastly, the defendant in a criminal prosecution is allowed to call witnesses to speak, generally, to his character, though he is not allowed to prove particular actions bearing favourably on his character, unless they happen to stand in connection with some of the facts charged and proved against him (*t*); and, on the other hand, the Crown seldom, in practice, puts in evidence of general bad character (*u*). And though, under certain circumstances, the Crown may give proof of a previous conviction (*u*), yet this is subject to the restrictions imposed by the legislature. For, by the Larceny Act, 1861, and Coinage Offences Act, 1861 (*x*), it was provided, that in an indictment under those Acts alleging the offence to have been committed after a previous conviction, the

(*s*) Sect. 20.

(*t*) As to evidence to contradict evidence to character, see *R.* v. *Rowton* (1865), 34 L. J. M. C. 57.

(*u*) Taylor, *Evidence*, s. 327.

(*x*) There is a previous statute on this subject to the same general effect, viz., the Previous Conviction Act, 1836.

defendant should, in the first instance, be arraigned upon so much of the indictment as charged the subsequent offence, concerning which only the jury should, in the first instance, inquire; and if they should find him guilty thereof, or if on arraignment he should plead guilty to the subsequent offence, then (and not before) the previous conviction should be inquired into. But whenever a prisoner, in his defence, should give evidence as to character, the prosecutor might, in answer thereto, give evidence of the previous conviction before the subsequent offence was found; and the jury should then inquire of the previous conviction and of the subsequent offence, at the same time (*y*). And under the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, section 18 (*z*), a previous conviction was directed to be proved, by producing a record or extract of such conviction, and by proof of the identity of the party.

By far the greatest change, however, which has been made in recent years in the law of evidence in criminal cases, is that introduced by the Criminal Evidence Act, 1898, which, for the first time, allowed a person accused of crime to give sworn evidence in his own behalf. The provisions of this Act are so important that it will be well to set them out in detail.

First, every prisoner, and the wife or husband of every prisoner, is made a competent witness for the defence; but the prisoner himself is not to be called except on his own application, and the wife or husband is not, as a general rule, to be called except on the prisoner's application (*a*).

Secondly, the prisoner, if he elect to be called as a witness, may be cross-examined, and in such cross-examination, he may be asked any question which tends

(*y*) Larceny Act, 1861, s. 116; Coinage Offences Act, 1861, s. 37; Arch. *Pl. & Ev.* (22nd ed.) pp. 186, 288, 333; The Criminal Law Acts, by Greaves, p. 203.

(*z*) This Act has been amended by the Prevention of Crimes Amendment Act, 1885; and Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 6.

(*a*) Sect. 1.

to prove the offence with which he is charged, but not (in general) any question tending to show that he is of bad character, or any question tending to show that he has committed any other offence (*b*).

Thirdly, a prisoner who has elected to be called as a witness, and who gives (or procures to be given) evidence as to his own good character, may in his cross-examination be asked any question tending to contradict that evidence; as he may also be, if evidence has been given reflecting on the character of the prosecutor or of the prosecutor's witnesses (*b*).

Fourthly, the husband or wife of the prisoner is in no case *compellable* to disclose any communications made during the marriage (s. 1); but, subject to that, the husband or wife may be called as a witness, and either for the prosecution or for the defence, in any of the following cases, that is to say:—

(1) When by the common law, and altogether apart from the Act, they might be so called (*c*);

(2) In any proceeding under the Vagrancy Act, 1824;

(3) In any proceeding under sections 48 to 55 of the Offences Against the Person Act, 1861;

(4) In any proceeding under the Married Women's Property Act, 1882;

(5) In any proceeding under the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885;

And (6) In any proceeding under the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1894,—

And in all these cases, without the consent of (and without any application on the part of) the prisoner.

Fifthly, the fact that the prisoner (or the wife or husband) is not a witness, is not to be commented on by

(*b*) Sect. 1; *Charnock* v. *Merchant*, [1900] 1 Q. B. 474.

(*c*) Sect. 4, sub-s. 2. See *ante*, p. 378.

the prosecution (*d*) ; and, conversely, the fact that the prisoner is a witness, is not (of itself) to confer upon the prosecution the right to reply (*e*), for, when the prisoner is the only witness for the defence, he is to be called immediately after the close of the prosecutor's evidence (*f*).

And, Sixthly, the prisoner is still left as free as heretofore to make at the trial any statement not upon oath which he may choose to make, the provision of section 18 of the Indictable Offences Act, 1848, being in no way affected by the Act. There is nothing in the Act which relates to the giving of evidence before the grand jury.

[When the evidence on both sides is closed, and, indeed, when any evidence hath been given, the jury cannot, in general, be discharged, (unless in cases of evident necessity,) till they have given in their verdict (*g*) ; but are to consider of it, and deliver it in, with the same forms as upon civil causes. But the judge may adjourn, while the jury withdraw to confer, and he returns to receive the verdict in open court (*h*).] When the trial runs to such a length, that it cannot be concluded in one day, the established practice is to adjourn the court till the next morning ; and in such a case, the jury (in cases of felony) were formerly kept somewhere together, so that they might have no communication except with each other (*i*). But, under the Juries Detention Act, 1897, the court may now, in any trial for felony, permit the jury to separate at any time before they consider their verdict, equally as in the case of trials for a misdemeanor ; but this discretionary power in the court is not to apply in any case of murder,

(*d*) Sect. 1.

(*e*) Sect. 3.

(*f*) Sect. 2. *R.* v. *Rhodes*, [1899] 1 Q. B. 77 ; *R.* v. *Gardner*, *id.* 150.

(*g*) Co. Litt. 227 ; 3 Inst. 110 ; Foster, 27 ; *Gould's Case*, Hil. T. 1764 ; *R.* v. *Charlesworth* (1861), 1 B. & Sm. 460 ; *Winsor* v. *The Queen* (1866), L. R. 1 Q. B. 289, 390.

(*h*) 3 St. Tr. 731 ; 4 St. Tr. 231, 455, 485.

(*i*) *Stone's Case* (1796), 6 T. R. 527 ; 25 St. Tri. 1155.

or of treason or treason-felony. The jury may not give their verdict on a Sunday.

[The verdict of the jury may be *general*, *i.e.*, "guilty" or "not guilty"; or it may be *special*, setting forth all the circumstances of the case, and praying the judgment of the court (*k*), whether, on the facts stated, it be murder, manslaughter, a nuisance, or no offence at all. The jury find such special verdict where they doubt the matter of law, and therefore leave it to the determination of the court; but the jury have in all cases an unquestionable right to determine upon all the circumstances, and to find a general verdict.

There was at one time in use a practice of fining, imprisoning, or otherwise punishing jurors, for finding a verdict contrary to the direction of the judge; but this practice was long ago accounted "tyrannical" (*l*). For, as Sir Matthew Hale well observes, it would be a most unhappy case for the judge himself, if the prisoner's fate depended upon his directions; and unhappy also for the prisoner, for, if the judge's opinion must rule the verdict, the trial by jury would be useless (*m*). Yet, in many instances, where, contrary to the evidence, the jury have found the prisoner guilty, their verdict hath been mercifully set aside, and a new trial granted by the King's Bench; but there hath yet been no instance of granting a new trial, where the prisoner was found *not* guilty on the first (*n*). Also, the only cases in which a new trial has hitherto been granted have been cases of misdemeanor (*o*), and not of felony (*p*); but when it is stated, that no new

(*k*) *R.* v. *Tindall* (1837), 6 A. & E. 143.

(*l*) Smith, *Commonw.* l. 3, c. 1.

(*m*) 2 Hale, P. C. 313.

(*n*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 47, s. 11.

(*o*) *R.* v. *Read* (1660), 1 Lev. 9; *R.* v. *Whitehouse* (1852), Dears. C. C. 1; *R.* v. *Mawbey* (1796), 6 T. R. 619; *R.* v. *Oxfordshire* (1811), 13 East, 411, 415.

(*p*) *R.* v. *Scaife* (1851), 17 Q. B. 238; *R.* v. *Bertrand* (1867), L. R. 1 P. C. 520; *R.* v. *Murphy* (1869), L. R. 2 P. C. 535.

[trial has ever been granted in the case of a verdict of not guilty, this must not be understood of misdemeanors consisting of nonfeasances, or which involve a mere civil liability. For in these, a new trial is ordinarily granted, whatever the original verdict may be (*q*).

If the jury find the prisoner not guilty, he is, save in the exceptional cases last mentioned, for ever quit and discharged of the accusation ; and upon such *acquittal*, or upon his discharge for want of prosecution, he shall be immediately set at large, without payment of any fee to the gaoler (*r*). But if the jury find him guilty, he is then said to be *convicted* of the crime whereof he stands indicted, which conviction may (as we have seen) accrue, either by his confessing the offence and pleading guilty, or by his being found so by the verdict of his country.]

And here we may usefully refer to the allowance of the expenses incurred in a criminal prosecution ; and to the restitution, in case of larceny, of the goods stolen.

1. And, first, by the Criminal Law Act, 1826, section 22, the court before whom an indictment for any *felony* is preferred (*s*) is empowered to allow the expenses of the prosecutor and his witnesses, with compensation for their trouble and loss of time (*t*), and this whether the case

(*q*) *R.* v. *Russell* (1854), 3 El. & Bl. 942; *R.* v. *Johnson* (1860), 2 El. & El. 613.

(*r*) Gaol Fees Abolition Acts, 1815 and 1845 ; *R.* v. *Coles* (1845), 8 Q. B. 75.

(*s*) See also the Admiralty Offences Act, 1844, s. 1, as to offences committed *on the high seas;* Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, ss. 700, 701, as to offences by *British seamen ;* Central Criminal Court Act, 1856, s. 13, Jurisdiction in Homicides Act, 1862, s. 12, as to prosecutions removed for trial to the *Central Criminal Court;* and the Debtors Act, 1869, s. 17, as to the prosecution of *fraudulent debtors.*

(*t*) By the Criminal Justice Administration Act, 1851, s. 4, the amount of such expenses is placed under the superintendence of the secretary of state ; and the costs are charged in the first instance upon the county rate or borough rate, and are repaid by the Treasury to the county or borough out of moneys provided by parliament (*R.* v. *The Commissioners of the Treasury* (1872), L. R. 7 Q. B. 387).

terminate in a conviction or in an acquittal, or in no bill being found; and by the Criminal Justice Act, 1855, section 22, and the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, section 28, similar powers are given to justices at petty sessions, in dealing with offences under those Acts, in the exercise of their summary jurisdiction. And though, with regard to *misdemeanors* prosecuted by indictment, there is no general provision on the subject, the costs of the prosecution are, in a great variety of cases, provided for in the same way, by the particular Act under which the misdemeanor is punishable (*u*). By the Prosecutions Expenses Act, 1866, the justices before whom a prisoner is brought and examined, though no *committal for trial* takes place, may grant to any witness called and examined a certificate of his expenses, which expenses are to be allowed out of the county rate, if the charge be made *bonâ fide* and on reasonable and probable cause. And, by the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867, section 5, the court before which any person is tried for any felony or misdemeanor may, in its discretion, order that there shall be paid to any witness, who was bound over by the examining magistrate to give evidence on behalf of the person accused, a sum of money in reasonable compensation for his expenses, trouble and loss of time, as part of the expenses of the prosecution (*x*).

(*u*) *E.g.*, indictable misdemeanors under the Prevention of Offences Act, 1851; the Criminal Law Consolidation Acts, 1861; the Debtors Act, 1869; the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1885; the Prevention of Cruelty to Children Act, 1894, etc.

(*x*) By 4 W. & M. (1692), c. 18, and the Crown Office Rules, 1886, r. 49, if the prosecutor (on an information filed by the master of the crown office) does not try within a year after issue joined, or if the defendant be acquitted by verdict, or if a *nolle prosequi* be entered, the King's Bench may award costs to the defendant, unless the judge certifies in open court on the trial that there was a reasonable ground for the prosecution. And see Central Criminal Court Act, 1856, ss. 25, 26; Jurisdiction in Homicides Act, 1862, s. 12; and the Crown Office Rules, 1886, rr. 300, 301.

2. [By the common law, there was no restitution of goods upon an indictment, because such proceeding is at the suit of the Crown only ; and therefore the party was enforced to bring an appeal of robbery, in order to have his goods again (*y*).] But, afterwards, by the 21 Hen. VIII. (1529), c. 11, where any person was convicted of larceny by the evidence of the party robbed, such party was to have full restitution of his money, goods, and chattels, or the value of them out of the offender's goods, by a writ to be granted by the justices ; and afterwards, it became the practice for the court, upon the conviction of a felon, to order (without any such writ) immediate restitution to the several prosecutors of such goods as were brought into court (*z*). And though the statute of 21 Hen. VIII. has been repealed (*a*), a writ or order of restitution may now, in many cases, be issued under the provisions of particular statutes. For, under the Larceny Act, 1861, section 100 (*b*), as restricted by section 24 (2) of the Sale of Goods Act, 1893, if any person is convicted of an offence amounting in law to that of stealing goods, the property in the goods so stolen revests, notwithstanding any intermediate dealing with them, in the owner, his executor or administrator ; and the court which convicts the offender (*c*), has power to award a writ of restitution for such property, or to order the restitution thereof in a summary manner. But as to valuable securities, no restitution is to be awarded if they have been *bonâ fide*

(*y*) 3 Inst. 242.

(*z*) There is no power, either at common law or by statute, of ordering restitution of goods, save to the prosecutor (*R.* v. *The Corporation of London* (1858), El. Bl. & El. 509).

(*a*) By 7 & 8 Geo. 4 (1826), c. 27.

(*b*) *Cundy* v. *Lindsay* (1878), 3 App. Ca. 459. Until the passing of the Sale of Goods Act, 1893, s. 100 of the Larceny Act, 1861, applied to *all* offences under that Act (except offences under ss. 75—86), *e.g.*, obtaining goods by false pretences (*Beatley* v. *Vilmont* (1887), 12 App. Ca. 471).

(*c*) *R.* v. *Lord Mayor of London* (1869), L. R. 4 Q. B. 371.

paid or discharged by some person liable to the payment thereof, or (being negotiable instruments) have been *bonâ fide* taken by transfer or delivery for a just and valuable consideration, without any notice or reasonable cause to suspect the felony or misdemeanor. And under the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, section 27, a similar power of ordering the restitution of stolen goods is given to the justices of the peace, in cases where they deal summarily with this class of offences.

[The order for restitution after conviction reaches the goods stolen, notwithstanding the property in them has been altered by a sale in market overt (*d*). This doctrine may seem somewhat hard on the buyer ; but the rule of law is, that *spoliatus debet, ante omnia, restitui*, especially when the owner has used all the diligence in his power to convict the felon. And, since the case is reduced to this hard necessity, that either the owner or the buyer must suffer, the law prefers the owner, who has done a meritorious act by pursuing a felon to condign punishment, to the right of the buyer, whose merit is only negative, that he has been guilty of no unfair transaction (*e*).] However, under the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1867, section 9, where a prisoner has been convicted of any offence involving in it the stealing of property, and it appears to the court that the prisoner has sold the property to a *bonâ fide* purchaser without notice, the court may, on the application of the purchaser, and on his restitution of the stolen property to the prosecutor, order a sum not exceeding the purchase-money to be paid to the purchaser out of any moneys which may be taken from the prisoner on his apprehension ; and, by the

(*d*) 1 Hale, P. C. 543 ; 4 Bl. Com. 363 ; *White* v. *Spettigue* (1845), 13 M. & W. 603; *Scattergood* v. *Sylvester* (1850), 15 Q. B. 506 ; *Moss* v. *Hancock*, [1899] 2 Q. B. 111 ; *Re Vautin*, [1899] 2 Q. B. 549.

(*e*) *Payne* v. *Wilson*, [1895] 1 Q. B. 653; [1895] 2 Q. B. 537.

Forfeiture Act, 1870, sections 3, 4, the court may condemn any offender convicted of treason or felony to pay the costs of the prosecution (*f*), together with a sum of money, by way of compensation, not exceeding 100*l.* to any person aggrieved (*g*).

(*f*) *R.* v. *Roberts* (1873), L. R. 9 Q. B. 77.

(*g*) As to the restitution (or other disposition) of property in the possession of the police, see the Police Property Act, 1897.

CHAPTER XIX.

OF JUDGMENT AND ITS CONSEQUENCES.

We are now to consider the Judgment in a criminal prosecution. For when, upon a charge of felony, the jury have, in the presence of the prisoner, brought in their verdict "guilty," he is, either immediately, or at a convenient time soon after, asked by the court, if he has anything to offer why judgment should not be awarded against him; and, upon a charge of misdemeanor, in case the defendant be found guilty in his absence, a *capias* is thereupon issued, to bring him in to receive judgment, and (if he absconds) he may be prosecuted even to outlawry. But no corporal punishment can in any case be awarded against a defendant unless he be personally present (*a*).

If the convicted party appears in person, he might formerly at this stage of the proceedings have claimed his benefit of clergy, a privilege or exemption long since abolished (*b*); and it is at this stage also of the proceedings

(*a*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 48, s. 17; Com. Dig. *Indictment*, N.

(*b*) The benefit of clergy (we may here conveniently mention) originally consisted in the privilege allowed to a clerk in orders, when prosecuted in the temporal courts, of being discharged from thence, and handed over to the Courts Christian, in order to make canonical purgation, that is, to clear himself on his own oath, and on the oaths of his compurgators (Reeves, *Hist. Eng. Law*, vol. ii. pp. 14, 134; 25 Edw. 3 (1352), st. 6, c. 4): which privilege was extended by degrees to all who could read, and was ultimately allowed by 6 Anne (1706), c. 9, without reference to the ability to read. (Reeves, *ubi sup.*, *et* vol. 4, p. 156; 2 Inst. 637; 1 Edw. 6 (1547), c. 12.) But it was provided by 4 Hen. 7 (1488), c. 13, that laymen allowed their clergy should be burned in the hand, and should claim it only once; and as to the clergy, it became the practice,

that he may offer any exceptions to the indictment or in *arrest of judgment*, the exceptions being grounded on some defect apparent on the face of the record, for it is to defects of that kind only, that the motion in arrest of judgment applies (*c*). Formerly, indeed, the judgment might be arrested for merely formal defects, as for want of sufficient certainty in setting forth the person, the time, or the place. But now, (as we have seen) defects of a merely formal kind are in some cases wholly immaterial, and in all other cases must be brought forward either by way of demurrer or by motion to quash the indictment; so that a motion in arrest of judgment can now be made only

in cases of heinous and notorious guilt, to hand them over to the ordinary *absque purgatione faciendâ*,—the effect of which was that they were to be imprisoned for life (4 Bl. Com. 362), although afterwards, by 18 Eliz. (1575), c. 7, the delivering over to the ordinary was abolished altogether. Benefit of clergy had no application except in capital felonies; and from the more atrocious of these, it was successively taken away by various statutes, and was ultimately abolished altogether by the Criminal Law Act, 1827, section 6. Prior to its abolition, clerks in orders were discharged, in clergyable felonies, without any corporal punishment whatever, and as often as they offended (2 Hale P. C. 375), the only penalty to which they were subjected being a forfeiture of their goods. And the case was the same with peers and peeresses, as regards the first offence; and inasmuch as, after the total abolition of clergy by the Criminal Law Act, 1827, doubts were entertained whether the privilege of lords or peers in parliament was not still preserved, the Felony Act, 1841, enacted, that, upon conviction for any felony, peers should be punishable like any other criminals. Commoners could have benefit of clergy only for the first offence, and were discharged by it from the capital punishment only, being subject, by 4 Geo. 1 (1717), c. 11, 6 Geo. 1 (1719), c. 23, and 19 Geo. 3 (1778), c. 74, to forfeiture of their goods, and (in addition) to burning in the hand, and (except in manslaughter) to whipping, together with fine and imprisonment (or, in certain cases, transportation) in lieu of the capital sentence. (4 Bl. Com. 363.)

(*c*) For any error in *law* apparent on the record, and with regard to which no question has been *reserved* for the consideration of the Court for Crown Cases Reserved, an appeal to the Court of Appeal also lies. (Supreme Court of Judicature Act, 1873, s. 47; *R.* v. *Steel* (1876), 2 Q. B. D. 37; *R.* v. *Fletcher* (1876), *ib.* 43; *Blake* v. *Beech* (1877), 2 Ex. D. 335.)

for a matter of substance (*d*), and even then, only where the defect is not aided by verdict (*e*). But if the objection taken appear to be sufficient, the court will arrest the judgment, that is to say, will abstain from pronouncing any judgment, and will discharge the prisoner; in which case he may be indicted again (*f*).

There is also another method of protecting a prisoner found guilty by verdict, from having judgment awarded against him, where the case is a proper one (by reason of some point of law involved therein), that he should be so protected, at least for a time. For supposing the trial to be in a court of oyer and terminer, gaol delivery, or quarter sessions, and that any question of law arises which the court finds too difficult for its determination, the court may, by the Crown Cases Act, 1848, *reserve* such question, and state it in the form of a special case for the consideration of the judges of the King's Bench Division of the High Court, and may in the meantime postpone the judgment, or respite the execution of it, as may be thought fit.

Again, a *pardon*, which may (as already mentioned) be pleaded on arraignment, in bar of the indictment, may also be pleaded after verdict, in arrest of judgment; but certainly, when a man hath obtained a pardon, he ought to plead it as soon as possible.

If all these resources fail, the court must pronounce *judgment* (*g*), by awarding the punishment which the law hath annexed to the crime; and such judgment ought regularly in all cases to be *recorded* (*h*). The punishment

(*d*) *Larkin's Case* (1854), Dears. C. C. 365.

(*e*) *Heymann* v. *The Queen* (1873), L. R. 8 Q. B. 102.

(*f*) 4 Rep. 45.

(*g*) It may be observed, that, after indictment found and *before judgment*, the attorney-general on behalf of the Crown may enter a *nolle prosequi* on the record.

(*h*) By the Judgment of Death Act, 1823, whenever any person is convicted of any capital felony (except *murder*), and the court before whom he is convicted is of opinion, that (under the particular

of offences is in some cases governed by the common law only, but is more frequently defined by statute (*i*). In misdemeanors, it is generally fine or imprisonment, or both; in felonies, it is usually imprisonment or penal servitude. And the imprisonment is frequently accompanied, both in misdemeanors and in felonies, with hard labour; to which whipping in certain cases, and solitary confinement, to the extent presently to be mentioned, are also sometimes added (*k*).

In cases punishable at common law, the judge has a discretion whether fine or imprisonment, or both, shall be awarded; the measure of either being also left to his decision. And even where the punishment is fixed by statute, there is usually reposed in the judge, in cases of felony, a discretion between imprisonment and penal servitude; and in cases both of felony and of misdemeanor, a power of determining, within certain limits at

circumstances of the case) he is a fit subject for the royal mercy, the court may abstain from pronouncing judgment of death, and may simply order the judgment to be *recorded*; which, being entered on record, is to have the same effect as if the judgment had been pronounced and the offender reprieved. The only felonies to which this provision now applies, are those under the Piracy Act, 1837, s. 2, and under the Dockyards, etc. Protection Act, 1772.

(*i*) In the case of a *felony* for which no other punishment is provided, there may (by the Criminal Law Act, 1827, s. 8, and the Penal Servitude Act, 1857), be awarded penal servitude to the extent of seven years, or imprisonment (with or without hard labour, solitary confinement, and whipping) to the extent of two years; and in the case of a *misdemeanor* for which no other punishment is provided, there may be awarded (by the common law) fine and imprisonment at the discretion of the court.

(*k*) The punishment of *whipping* was inflicted (at common law) on persons of inferior condition, who were guilty of petty larcenies or other of the smaller offences; but, by the usage of the Star-Chamber, it was never inflicted on a gentleman (1 Chit. *C. L.* 796). Blackstone (vol. iv. p. 370) enumerates also the *pillory*, the *stocks*, and the *ducking stool*, as ignominious punishments; but the pillory was abolished by 7 Will. 4 & 1 Vict. (1837), c. 23, and the stocks and the ducking-stool are obsolete

least, the duration of the period of confinement. The judge, however, cannot inflict, for any offence, a punishment not specifically made applicable thereto by the law itself; and, by the Bill of Rights, no cruel or unusual punishments may be inflicted. But where a criminal has been convicted of any felony, and is sentenced to imprisonment, and he is already in confinement under a previous conviction and sentence, the court may direct the imprisonment under the subsequent sentence to commence from the expiration of the period of the imprisonment under the previous sentence; and that although the aggregate term of imprisonment may exceed the maximum term of imprisonment allowed by the particular Act (*l*). Moreover, when the indictment contains (as it may do) several counts or accusations, if the prisoner is convicted of more than one offence, his punishment may, in the discretion of the court, be either *concurrent* or *cumulative*. If the former method is adopted, the two periods run together, and the prisoner is discharged on the expiration of the longer period of the two; but if the latter, the second period only begins, on and as from the expiration of the first period (*m*). Also, in all cases where the court is, by any statute, empowered or required to award a sentence of penal servitude, the sentence may, at the discretion of the court, be *either* (1) *penal servitude* for any period not less than three years and not exceeding either five years or any greater period authorised by the enactment, *or* (2) *imprisonment* with or without hard labour for any term not exceeding two years (*n*).

We propose now to consider here, and with some little detail, each of the classes of criminal punishment above referred to.

(*l*) Criminal Law Act, 1827, s. 10; Penal Servitude Acts, 1853 and 1857.

(*m*) *R.* v. *Castro* (1881), 5 Q. B. D. 490; 6 App. Ca. 229.

(*n*) Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1.

[First, *as to Fines.*—The value of money being different to different individuals, and varying also from century to century, the *quantum* of fines neither can nor ought to be ascertained by any invariable law. The law of the Twelve Tables, which fined every person who struck another five-and-twenty denarii, grew in the more opulent days of the empire to be a punishment of so little consideration, that one Lucius Neratius made it his diversion to give a blow in order to pay the legal penalty. Our law, therefore, has not as a rule ascertained the quantity of fines, and has directed rather that such and such an offence shall be punished "by fine" in general, without specifying the sum. But the power of the court as to fixing the amount of the fine, when not specifically limited by any particular statute, is limited generally by the constitutional principle, declared in the Bill of Rights, that excessive fines shall not be imposed (*o*); and the same statute further declares, that all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons, before conviction, are illegal and void (*p*).

The reasonableness of fines in criminal cases is also regulated by the determination of *Magna Carta*, c. 14, concerning amercements for misbehaviour by the suitors in matters of civil right,—"*Liber homo non amercietur pro* "*parvo delicto, nisi secundum modum ipsius delicti; et pro* "*magno delicto, secundum magnitudinem delicti, salvo con-*" *tenemento suo; et mercator eodem modo, salvâ mercandisâ* "*suâ; et villanus eodem modo amercietur, salvo wainagio* "*suo.*" A rule that obtained even in Henry the Second's time (*q*), and which means, that no man shall have a larger amercement imposed upon him than his circum-

(*o*) A fine of 30,000*l.* imposed on the Earl of Devonshire, for striking within the limits of a royal palace, was declared oppressive and illegal ((1687), 11 St. Tri. 1353; *Oates' Case* (1684), 10 St. Tri. 125).

(*p*) 2 Inst. 48.

(*q*) Glanv. b. 9, c. 8, s. 11.

[stances or estate will bear ; saving to the landowner his contenement or land (*r*), to the trader his merchandize, and to the countryman his wainage, or team and instruments of husbandry. And in order to ascertain that fines are just and not unreasonable, the Great Charter directs, that the amercement, which is always inflicted in general terms ("*sit in misericordiâ*"), shall be set (*ponatur*), *i.e.*, reduced to a certainty, by the oath of good and lawful men of the neighbourhood. This method of liquidating the amercement to a precise sum, was in the court leet and court baron usually performed by *affeerors*, or jurors sworn to *affere*, that is, to tax and moderate, the general amercement, according to the particular circumstances of the offence and the offender (*s*). As regards, indeed, the officers themselves of the superior courts, the fines or amercements imposed upon them were assessed by the judges themselves ; but when a pecuniary mulct was inflicted on any one who was not an officer of the court (*t*), it was then properly denominated a *fine*, and the antient practice was, to inquire by a jury "*quantum inde regi dare valeat per annum, salvâ "sustentatione suâ, et uxoris, et liberorum suorum*" (*u*). And, since the disuse of such inquest, it is never usual to assess a larger fine than a man is able to pay without touching the implements of his livelihood ; but to inflict some corporal punishment, or a limited imprisonment, in lieu of (or in addition to) the fine, where such punishment is legal and appropriate, and seems necessary. It is for this reason, that fines in the king's courts have been frequently denominated ransoms, because the penalty must otherwise fall upon a man's person, unless it be redeemed or ransomed by a pecuniary fine (*x*), according to the

(*r*) Lord Coke says *contenement* is *countenance* (semble, *competence*) (2 Inst. 28).

(*s*) F. N. B. 76.

(*t*) 8 Rep. 40.

(*u*) Gilb. *Exchcq.* c. 5.

(*x*) Mirrour, c. 5, s. 3 ; Lamb. *Eirenarcha*, 575.

[antient maxim, *qui non habet in crumenâ luat in corpore*. Yet, where any statute speaks of both fine and ransom, it is holden that the ransom shall be treble the fine at least (*y*).]

Secondly, *as to Imprisonment* (*a*).—Imprisonment, when imposed under modern Acts of Parliament as a punishment for crime, is now usually limited to two years (*b*); and the sentence frequently inflicts the additional severity of *solitary confinement*, or of *hard labour*, or both, according to the nature of the case (*c*). But as regards solitary confinement, the 7 Will. IV. & 1 Vict. (1837), c. 90, section 5, provided, that it should not be lawful to direct an offender to be kept in solitary confinement for any longer period than one month at a time, or than three months in the space of one year; and a similar limitation is inserted in each of the Criminal Law Consolidation Acts of 1861, with reference to the offences punishable under those statutes respectively. As regards hard labour, regulations respecting its nature and severity have been made, under which it is divided into two classes, one for the employment of males above the age of sixteen, the other of males below that age and of females (*d*).

(*y*) *Norton's Case* (1563), Dyer, 232.

(*a*) Young offenders who appear to the court to be *under sixteen*, and who are convicted of an offence punishable with penal servitude or imprisonment, may, if previously convicted, or if not less than twelve years old, be sent to a certified reformatory school for from three to five years. (Reformatory Schools Act, 1893, s. 1; Reformatory Schools Act, 1899, s. 1.)

(*b*) See Criminal Law Consolidation Acts, 1861, *passim*; also Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 1. It formerly extended to three and even to four years, in the case of certain offences.

(*c*) The punishment of *hard labour* is said to have been first introduced by 6 Anne (1706), c. 9. (See *R.* v. *Baker* (1837), 7 A. & E. 502.) Hard labour may now be added, in most cases, to the sentence of imprisonment. (See Criminal Law Consolidation Acts, 1861, *passim*.)

(*d*) Prison Act, 1865, s. 19, and Part IV. sched. I. reg. 34—38. And see also the Prison Act, 1877, s. 37, enabling the secretary of state to relax the rules laid down in the previous Act, as to the nature of the labour. See also

Thirdly, *as to Whipping*.—Under such modern Acts of Parliament as authorize this punishment, the offender may be whipped in addition to being imprisoned. By the Whipping Act, 1820, however, it was provided that judgment should in no case be given, that any *female* convicted of any offence should be whipped, either publicly or privately; and in cases where the whipping of female offenders had before that Act formed either a part or the whole of the sentence, the court was empowered, *in lieu* of the sentence of being publicly or privately whipped, to pass sentence of confinement with hard labour in the common gaol or house of correction, for any time not exceeding six months, nor less than one month, or of solitary confinement therein, for any space not exceeding seven days at any one time. And, by the Criminal Law Consolidation Acts of 1861, where whipping is authorized, it is uniformly confined to males under the age of *sixteen* (*e*); and the whipping is to be private, and only to be inflicted *once*, and the number of strokes and the instrument with which they are to be administered are to be specified by the court in the sentence. A similar provision was made by the Whipping Act, 1862, with reference to this punishment when awarded by a Court of *Summary Jurisdiction*; but in the case of an offender whose age does not exceed fourteen years, the number of strokes is not to exceed twelve, and the instrument to be used is a birch rod (*f*). On the other hand, when the sentence of whipping is inflicted under the Garrotters Act, an Act passed in the year 1863, "for the further

the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879, s. 4, with reference to the remission of hard labour in cases disposed of by way of summary conviction.

(*e*) Criminal Law Consolidation Acts, 1861, *passim*.

(*f*) This Act is not in terms referred to in the Summary Jurisdiction Act, 1879; but that statute limits the number of strokes with a birch rod in the case of a child under the age of fourteen to *six*, and makes, moreover, additional regulations with regard to the manner in which the sentence is to be carried out.

"security of the persons of her Majesty's subjects from "personal violence," the punishment may be ordered to be administered twice, or even thrice; and there is no limitation as to the age of the person to be so punished, though if his age does not exceed sixteen, the number of strokes at each infliction is not to exceed twenty-five, and they are to be administered with a birch rod. In the case of older offenders, the number of strokes, at each whipping, is not to exceed fifty; and the sentence is in every case to specify the number of strokes, and the instrument to be used. And no whipping is to take place after the expiration of six months from the passing of the sentence.

Fourthly, *as to Penal Servitude.*—This is a sentence which has been introduced, in our own days, in substitution for that of *transportation beyond the seas* (*g*). The principal statute having reference to punishment by way of "transportation" was the Transportation Act, 1824, by which the law on that subject was revised and consolidated in the year 1824 (*h*). Under that Act, the Crown was enabled to appoint places beyond the seas, either within or without the dominions of the Crown, to which offenders under sentence of transportation might be conveyed and kept to hard labour; and also places, in England and Wales, for their confinement until transported or discharged, or otherwise disposed of by the secretary of state. But great difficulty having arisen in finding colonies willing to receive transported convicts, it became gradually the practice, as to certain classes of convicts who had been sentenced to transportation, to detain them in the mother-country for the whole

(*g*) Transportation is said (Barr. *Statutes*, 352) to have been first inflicted as a punishment by 39 Eliz. (1597), c. 4. As to its history, see *R.* v. *Baker* (1837), 7 A. & E. 502; *Bullock* v. *Dodds* 1819), 2 B. & Ald. 258; *Whitehead* v. *The Queen* (1845), 7 Q. B. 582.

(*h*) This Act has been amended (*inter alia*) by the Transportation Acts, 1825, 1830, 1834, 1843, and 1847; the Penal Servitude Acts, 1853, 1857, and 1891.

period of their term of punishment; until it was ultimately thought expedient to abolish the sentence of "transportation" altogether, and to substitute for it that of "penal servitude."

This change was effected by the Penal Servitude Acts, 1853 to 1891. By the first of these, (after providing that no person should for the future be sentenced to transportation,) it was enacted, that any persons who, if the Act had not passed, might have been so sentenced, should be liable to be sentenced to be kept in *penal servitude* for a term of the same duration; and further, that any person who might have been sentenced *either* to transportation or to imprisonment, might be sentenced either to penal servitude or to imprisonment. The Penal Servitude Act, 1857, also provided, that wherever, under the former law, seven years' transportation might have been awarded, penal servitude for *three* years might be substituted. The Penal Servitude Act, 1864, afterwards provided that no person should, in any case, be sentenced to penal servitude for a shorter period than *five* years; but the Penal Servitude Act, 1891, has restored the former three years' limit. And although the Penal Servitude Act, 1864, also directed, that, if the offender had been previously convicted of felony, the least period of sentence by way of penal servitude should be *seven* years (*i*), yet the Prevention of Crime Act, 1879, has repealed the last-mentioned provision.

The Penal Servitude Acts also provide, that every person sentenced to this punishment shall be kept either in any prison or place of confinement in the United Kingdom, or in any river port or harbour thereof, or in some place in his Majesty's dominions beyond the seas, duly appointed for such purpose by order in council, according as the secretary of state shall from time to time direct; and shall, while under confinement, be

(*i*) *R.* v. *Willis* (1872), L. R. 1 C. C. R. 363; *R.* v. *Deane* (1877), 2 Q. B. D. 305.

kept to hard labour, and otherwise treated as persons sentenced to transportation might formerly have been dealt with (*k*). But, by the same Acts, it is made lawful for his Majesty (*l*), by order in writing, under the hand and seal of the secretary of state, to grant to any convict, under sentence of penal servitude, or of imprisonment, a *licence to be at large* during such portion of his term, and on such conditions in all respects, as to his Majesty should seem fit (*m*); such licence being revocable at pleasure, and being forfeited if the holder is subsequently convicted of any indictable offence, or fails to report himself (*n*) to the proper officer once in every month, or fails to give due notice of any change of residence (*o*). And if the licence is revoked or forfeited, the convict may be sent back to the prison from which he was released by virtue of his licence, or may be placed in any other

(*k*) Penal Servitude Act, 1853, s. 6; Penal Servitude Act, 1857, s. 3.

(*l*) Penal Servitude Act, 1853, s. 9; Penal Servitude Act, 1857, s. 5; Penal Servitude Act, 1864, ss. 4—10. The Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, as amended by the Prevention of Crimes Amendment Act, 1876, Prevention of Crime Act, 1879, Prevention of Crimes Amendment Act, 1885, and the Penal Servitude Act, 1891, also contains provisions with regard to the holders of such licences. A prisoner sentenced to penal servitude, is informed by the authorities, on arriving at his destination, that he will, by a regular course of industry while undergoing his sentence, be enabled to obtain his liberty under a "licence to be at large," before the expiration of the period for which he has been sentenced, the time varying according to the number of years for which he has been sentenced; but if he has been sentenced to penal servitude *for life*, no such remission can take place except by order of the secretary of state. And a prisoner sentenced to a term of imprisonment may earn a remission of portion of the sentence by special industry and good conduct (Prison Act, 1898, s. 8).

(*m*) Penal Servitude Act, 1853, s. 9. And see Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, s. 5.

(*n*) The report must be either *personally* or *by letter*, in accordance with the directions given by the chief officer of the police of the district. (Act of 1871, s. 5.)

(*o*) Penal Servitude Act, 1864, s. 4; Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, s. 5; Prevention of Crime Act, 1879, s. 2; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 4.

convict prison (*p*). By the Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, where any person is convicted on indictment, and a previous conviction is proved against him, the court may, in addition to any other punishment, direct that he shall be subject to the *supervision of the police* for a period not exceeding seven years, commencing immediately after the expiration of the sentence passed on him for the last of such crimes; and that any person subject to such supervision, who shall remain in any place for forty-eight hours without notifying the place of his residence to the chief officer of police for the district, or who shall fail to comply with the requisitions of the Act in periodically reporting himself to such chief officer, shall, unless he can show that he did his best to act in conformity to the law, be liable to be imprisoned, with or without hard labour, for any period not exceeding one year (*q*). With the object of more effectually preventing crime, a *register* of criminals has been established, and their photographs are to be taken and distributed, so as to facilitate their identification (*r*).

Lastly, *as to the Sentence of Death.*—This is the most terrible judgment in the laws of England; the mode in which it is to take place is particularized in the sentence of death itself, which is, that the prisoner be hanged by the neck till dead, a mode of capital punishment that has been in use in this country from time immemorial (*s*). [Upon the passing of this sentence, the immediate and inseparable consequence at common law was *attainder*. For when it was thus made clear beyond all dispute that

(*p*) Penal Servitude Act, 1853, ss. 10, 11; Penal Servitude Act, 1857, s. 5; Penal Servitude Act, 1864, s. 9; Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, s. 5.

(*q*) Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, s. 8; Prevention of Crime Act, 1879, s. 2; Prevention of Crimes Amendment Act, 1885; Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 6.

(*r*) Prevention of Crimes Act, 1871, ss. 5, 8; Prevention of Crimes Amendment Act, 1876; and Penal Servitude Act, 1891, s. 8.

(*s*) 2 Hale, P. C. 399; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 48, s. 7.

[the criminal was no longer fit to live upon the earth, but was to be exterminated as a monster, and a bane to human society, the law set a note of infamy upon him, called him attaint (*attinctus*), stained or blackened, withdrew from him in general all civil rights, and considered him, in anticipation of his punishment, as already dead in law (*t*). But none of these consequences arose until after *judgment;* for there was a great difference between a man *convicted* and one *attainted*, though they were frequently, through inaccuracy, confounded together. For, after a mere conviction, a man was liable to none of these disabilities, there being still, in contemplation of law, a possibility of his innocence, as something might be offered in arrest of judgment; but when judgment was once pronounced, then these consequences followed, both law and fact conspiring to prove him completely guilty, and there was not the remotest possibility left of anything to be said in his favour. Upon judgment therefore of death, and not before, the attainder of a criminal commenced (*u*); or upon such circumstances as were equivalent to judgment of death, such as judgment of outlawry on a capital crime, pronounced for absconding or fleeing from justice, which tacitly confessed the guilt. And, therefore, either upon judgment of outlawry, or upon judgment of death, for a capital crime, a man was said to be attainted.

Among the consequences of attainder were, formerly, *forfeiture* and *corruption of blood.*

Forfeiture upon attainder accrued, in the first place, in the crime of treason. And here the criminal forfeited for ever to the Crown all his freehold lands and tenements of inheritance, whether held in fee simple or in fee tail; and also, all his rights of entry on freehold lands and tenements which he had at the time of the offence committed, or at any time afterwards, and, further, the profits of all

(*t*) 3 Inst. 213.

(*u*) *R.* v. *Bridger* (1836), 1 M. & W. 145.

[freehold lands and tenements which he had in his own right for life or years, so long as such interest should subsist (*x*).

This forfeiture related backwards to the time of the treason committed, so as to avoid all intermediate sales and incumbrances, but not those which had taken place before the crime (*y*); and therefore a wife's jointure was not forfeitable for the treason of her husband, because settled on her previous to the treason committed. But her dower was forfeited by the express provisions of the 5 & 6 Edw. VI. (1551), c. 11 (*z*); though the husband was held entitled to be tenant by the curtesy of the wife's lands, if the wife were attainted of treason, for that was not provided against by the statute (*a*). But though, after attainder, the forfeiture related back to the time of the treason committed, yet it did not take effect unless an attainder were had, of which it was one of the fruits; and therefore if a traitor died before judgment pronounced, or was killed in open rebellion, or hanged by martial law, it worked no forfeiture of his lands, for he never was attainted of treason (*b*).

(*x*) Co. Litt. 392; 3 Inst. 19; 1 Hale, P. C. 240; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 49.

(*y*) 3 Inst. 211.

(*z*) Counterfeiting the coin of the realm was formerly treason; but, by some of the statutes constituting this offence (5 Eliz. (1562), c. 11, 18 Eliz. (1575), c. 1, 8 & 9 Will. 3 (1696), c. 26, 15 Geo. 2 (1741), c. 28), it was provided, that it should work no forfeiture of lands except for the life of the offender; and by all, that it should not deprive the wife of her dower.

(*a*) 1 Hale, P. C. 359.

(*b*) Co. Litt. 13; 4 Rep. 57. It was enacted by 7 Anne (1708), c. 21 (repealed by 39 Geo. 3 (1798), c. 93), that (*after the decease of the then Pretender*) no attainder for treason should extend to the disinheriting of any heir, nor to the prejudice of any person other than the traitor himself. Blackstone's account (vol. iv. p. 377) of this enactment is this:—"At the time of the Union, "the crime of treason in Scotland "was, by the Scots law, in many "respects different from that in "England; yet it seemed neces- "sary, that a crime so nearly "affecting the government should "be put upon the same footing in "both parts of the united king- "dom. In new-modelling these "laws, the Scotch nation and "the English house of commons "struggled hard, partly to main- "tain, and partly to acquire, a

[With us, in England, forfeiture for treason was by no means derived from the feudal policy, but was antecedent to the establishment of that system in this island, being indeed founded on natural justice and transmitted from our Saxon ancestors, and forming a part of the ancient Scandinavian constitution. For he who violates the fundamental principles of government, and breaks his part of the original contract between king and people, must be held to have abandoned his connection with society, and with it all those advantages, including the right of transferring or transmitting property to others, which result from civil society. And besides, forfeitures, whereby one's posterity must suffer, are eminently calculated to restrain a man, not only by the dread of personal punishment, but also by his passions and natural affections, from committing this offence, according to that sentiment of Cicero, "*nec vero me fugit quam sit acerbum, parentum scelera* "*filiorum pœnis lui; sed hoc præclarè legibus comparatum* "*est, ut caritas liberorum amiciores parentes reipublicæ* "*redderet*" (*c*). For children are pledges to the prince of the father's obedience (*d*). Yet many nations, even in antient times, have thought that this posthumous punishment savours of hardship to the innocent, especially for crimes that do not (like treason) strike at the very root and foundations of society; and, therefore, though confiscations were very frequent in the times of the earlier emperors, yet Arcadius and Honorius, in every other instance but that of treason, thought it more just, "*ibi*

"total immunity from forfeiture "and corruption of blood, which "the house of lords as firmly re- "sisted; and at length a compro- "mise was agreed to, viz., that "the same crimes, and no other, "should be treason in Scotland "that are so in England, and that "the English forfeitures and cor- "ruption of blood should take "place in Scotland *till the death* "*of the then Pretender, and then* "*cease throughout the whole of* "*Great Britain.*" (See Burnet *Hist.* A.D. 1709; and *Considerations on the Law of Forfeiture*, vol. i. p. 244.)

(*c*) *Ad Brutum*, ep. 12.

(*d*) Gravin. 1, s. 68.

[" *esse pœnam, ubi et noxa est*," and ordered, that "*peccata* " *suos teneant auctores, nec ulterius progrediatur metus,* " *quam reperiatur delictum*" (*e*). Justinian, also, made a law to restrain the punishment of relations (*f*). On the other hand, the Macedonian laws extended even the capital punishment of treason, not only to the children, but to all the relations of the traitor (*g*); and of course their estates must also be forfeited, as no man was left to inherit them. In Germany, by the famous Golden Bull (*h*), copied almost *verbatim* from Justinian's code (*i*), although the lives of the sons of such as conspired to kill an Elector were spared, yet this was expressed to be by the emperor's *particular bounty;* and they were thereby deprived of all their effects and rights of succession, and were rendered incapable of any honour, ecclesiastical or civil, "to the end that, " being always poor and necessitous, they might for ever " be accompanied by the infamy of their father, might " languish in continual indigence, and might find their " punishment in living, and their relief in dying."

The law of this country as to attainder of mere *felony*, was somewhat different from attainder in the case of high treason. For in felony, the offender forfeited to the Crown, the profits of his freehold estates during life, and, in the case of lands held by him in fee simple (though not those held in tail) the lands themselves, for a year and a day, with power to the Crown of committing upon them what waste it pleased; and subject to this forfeiture, the lands escheated to the lord of the fee. This antient doctrine as to the right of the Crown for a year and a day requires, however, some further explanation (*k*). Formerly, then, the king had a liberty of committing waste on the lands of all felons, by pulling down their houses, extirpating their gardens, ploughing their meadows, and cutting down their woods; but this tending greatly to the prejudice of

(*e*) Cod. 9, 47, 22.
(*f*) Nov. 134, c. 13.
(*g*) Qu. Curt. l. 6.
(*h*) Cap. 24.
(*i*) L. 9, t. 8, l. 5.
(*k*) 2 Inst. 37.

[the public, it was agreed, in the reign of Henry the First, that the king should have the profits of the land for one year and a day, in lieu of the destruction he was otherwise at liberty to commit (*l*). And, therefore, *Magna Carta* provided, that the king should only hold such lands for a year and a day, and then restore them to the lord of the fee, without any mention made of waste ; but the so-called statute 17 Edw. II., *De prærogativâ regis*, seemed to suppose that the king should have his year, day, *and* waste, and not the year and day *instead of* waste, which Sir Edward Coke, and the author of the Mirrour before him, very justly looked upon as an encroachment, though a very antient one, of the royal prerogative (*m*).] Such continued to be the state of the law on this subject, in respect of felonies generally, until the passing of the Corruption of Blood Act, 1814, though it became the practice to compound for the year, day, and waste, in order to prevent the Crown from exercising its right of entry. But by the statute just mentioned, it was enacted, that no future attainder for felony, except in the cases of *treason* or *murder*, should extend to the disinheritance of any heir, or to the prejudice of the right or title of any person other than the right or title of the offender himself, and during his life only ; and that it should be lawful for every person to whom the right or interest of any lands, tenements, or hereditaments after the death of such offender should or might have appertained, if no such attainder had been, to enter into the same, the attainder notwithstanding. And, finally, the Forfeiture Act, 1870, took away altogether, from a judgment of treason or felony, the effect of causing a forfeiture.

The forfeitures above mentioned all arose, it will be observed, only as consequences of attainder (*n*): and therefore a *felo de se* forfeited no lands of inheritance or free-

(*l*) Mirr. c. 4, s. 16 ; Flet. l. 1, c. 28.

(*m*) Mirr. c. 5, s. 2 ; 2 Inst. 37.

(*n*) *R.* v. *Bridger* (1836), 1 M. & W. 145.

hold, for he could never be attainted, though found to be a felon (*o*).

Another consequence of attainder was CORRUPTION OF BLOOD, both upwards and downwards (*p*); so that an attainted person could neither inherit lands or other hereditaments from his ancestors, nor *transmit* them by descent to any heir, but the same escheated to the lord of the fee, subject to the Crown's superior right of forfeiture. But having had occasion to enlarge on this matter in a former volume, when the subject of *escheat* was under consideration, it is not necessary to detain the reader longer upon it in this place (*q*), further than to remind him, that, by the Forfeiture Act just mentioned, it has been provided, that no judgment for any treason or felony shall henceforth cause any *corruption of blood*.

[In addition to the forfeitures peculiar to attainder, it is to be understood that the FORFEITURE OF GOODS AND CHATTELS (both real and personal) ensued not only on attainder, but also on *conviction* for a felony of any kind, whether capital or otherwise (*r*). For *flight* also, on an accusation of treason or felony, whether the party were found guilty or acquitted, if the jury found the flight, the party forfeited his goods and chattels; for the very flight was held an offence carrying with it a strong presumption of guilt, and at least an endeavour to elude and stifle the course of justice. But in modern times it became unusual for the jury to find the flight, forfeiture being looked upon, since the vast increase of personal property of late years, as too large a penalty for an offence to which a man is prompted by the natural love of liberty (*s*);] and, by the Criminal Law Act, 1827, section 5, it was expressly enacted, that the jury empanelled to try a person indicted

(*o*) 3 Inst. 55; *Norris* v. *Chambres* (1861), 30 L. J. Ch. 285.

(*p*) *Kynnaird* v. *Leslie* (1866), L. R. 1 C. P. 389.

(*q*) *Vide sup.* vol. I. pp. 251—4.

(*r*) Forfeiture of *goods and chattels* accrued, consequently, on a verdict of *self-murder*.

(*s*) Staundf. P. C. 183 b.

for treason or felony should no longer be charged to inquire, whether he fled for such treason or felony.

[To revert to the forfeitures which formerly took place on attainder, and those which accrued on conviction merely, some remarkable differences will be noticed between the two. 1. Lands were forfeited upon attainder, but goods and chattels on *conviction* merely (*t*): and this, because, as in many convictions for felony, there never was any attainder, therefore, in those cases, the forfeiture must have been upon conviction, or not at all. And, being necessarily upon conviction in those, it was so ordered in all other cases, the law loving uniformity. 2. In outlawries for treason or felony, lands were not forfeited till the judgment of outlawry; but the goods and chattels were forfeited as soon as a man was first put into the *exigent*, without waiting till he was *quinto exactus*, or finally outlawed, for the secreting himself so long from justice was construed a flight in law (*u*). 3. The forfeiture of lands had relation to the time of the fact committed, so as to avoid all subsequent sales and incumbrances; but the forfeiture of goods and chattels had no relation backwards, so that those only which a man actually had at the time of conviction were forfeited. And therefore a traitor or felon might *bonâ fide* sell any of his chattels, real or personal, for the sustenance of himself and family between the offence committed and the conviction (*x*); for personal property is of so fluctuating a nature, that it passes through many hands in a short time, and no buyer would have been safe if he had been held liable to return the goods which he had fairly bought, provided any of the prior vendors had committed a treason or felony. But if they were collusively and not *bonâ fide* parted with, but merely to defraud the Crown, the law, and particularly the statute 13 Eliz. (1571), c. 5, was strong enough to reach them; for, under such circumstances, they

(*t*) *Roberts* v. *Walker* (1830), 1 Russ. & M. 752.

(*u*) 3 Inst. 232.

(*x*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 49, s. 33.

[were all the while truly and substantially the goods of the offender.]

The doctrines relating to forfeiture for crime, of which some account has been thus presented, are still deserving of attention from the student ; but their practical importance is now greatly lessened, by the sweeping change which was introduced by the Forfeiture Act, 1870, which (it will be remembered) has provided that thenceforth no confession, verdict, inquest, conviction, or judgment of or for any treason or felony or *felo de se* shall cause any attainder or corruption of blood, or any forfeiture or escheat (*y*). And, in lieu of these consequences, the Act has provided, that a conviction for treason or felony, followed by a sentence of death or penal servitude, or of imprisonment with hard labour exceeding twelve months, shall disqualify the person convicted from holding or retaining any military, naval, or civil office under the Crown, or other public employment, or any ecclesiastical benefice, or any place, office, or emolument in any university or other corporation, and from retaining any pension or superannuation allowance, unless he receives a free pardon from his Majesty within two months after conviction (*z*). And the same Act has further provided, that the property of the convict may be committed to the custody and management of *administrators* appointed by the Crown, or, in default of such appointment, to the management of *interim curators* appointed by the justices of the peace, on an application made in the interest of the convict or his family. Such administrators or curators are to pay the convict's debts and liabilities, and to support his family, and, subject thereto, are to preserve the residue of his property for the convict himself or his representatives, on the completion of his punishment, or

(*y*) Sect. 1.

(*z*) Sect. 2. The convicted felon is also made incapable of being elected or sitting or voting as a member of either House of Parliament, or of exercising any right of suffrage or other parliamentary or municipal franchise.

on his pardon, or death (*a*). But the Act expressly excludes from its operation the law of forfeiture consequent upon *outlawry* (*b*); and therefore the antient consequences of a judgment of outlawry would seem to be still in force, process of outlawry having been abolished in *civil* cases only.

(*a*) Sects. 9, 18. (*b*) Sect. 1.

CHAPTER XX.

OF REVERSAL OF JUDGMENT.

[We are next to consider how a judgment may be avoided. There are two ways of doing this ; either by a reversal of the judgment, or else by a reprieve or pardon.

And in the first place, a judgment may be set aside, reversed, or falsified without error brought, for matters foreign to or *dehors* the record, that is, not apparent upon the face of it, so that they cannot be assigned for error in the superior court, which can only judge from what appears in the record itself ; and therefore, if the whole record be not certified, or not truly certified by the inferior court, the party injured thereby may allege a diminution of the record, and cause it to be rectified. Thus, if any judgment be given by persons who had no good commission to proceed against the person condemned, it is void, and may be falsified by showing the special matter. As, where a commission issues to A. and B. and twelve others, or any two of them, of which A. or B. shall be one, to take and try indictments, and any of the other twelve proceed without the presence of either A. or B.,—in this case, all proceedings, trials, convictions, and judgments against any person are void for want of a proper authority in the commissioners, and may be falsified and set aside accordingly on proof of the fact ; it being a high misdemeanor in the judges so proceeding, and little, if anything, short of murder in them all, in case any person on such a judgment should be condemned to suffer death (*a*).]

(*a*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 50, ss. 2, 3.

Again, a judgment had in an inferior court of criminal jurisdiction may be reversed on error brought in the King's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice (*b*), for notorious and substantial mistakes in the judgment or other parts of the record. As if a man found guilty of the misdemeanor of perjury should be adjudged a felon (*c*); or, formerly, where in an indictment for publishing an obscene book, the words alleged to be obscene were omitted (*d*), which latter omission would, however, now be proper (*e*). But for merely *formal* defects, these are now deemed immaterial, or, if material, are to be brought forward by demurrer or motion to quash the indictment, so as to be forthwith amended by order of the court. Also, proceedings in error are never allowed to be brought as of course, but only on sufficient probable cause shown to the attorney-general (*f*), whose *fiat* (or permission) is then understood to be grantable of common right, and *ex debito justitiæ* (*g*). And by the 8 & 9 Vict. (1845), c. 68, amended by the Central Criminal Court Act, 1846, and 16 & 17 Vict. (1853), c. 32, where judgment has been given against a defendant indicted for a misdemeanor, and he has obtained leave to bring error, execution shall be stayed, and the defendant discharged from imprisonment, until such writ of error is finally determined; but no such execution shall be stayed or discharge take place, until the defendant shall be bound by recognizance, with two sufficient sureties, to prosecute the writ of error

(*b*) If the sentence appears to be erroneous, but the indictment valid, the prisoner must be discharged (*R.* v. *Bourne* (1837), 7 A. & E. 58). As to error brought for the purpose of compromising a prosecution, see *Alleyne's Case* (1854), Dears. C. C. 505; 4 El. & Bl. 186.

(*c*) 4 Bl. Com. 384.

(*d*) *Bradlaugh* v. *The Queen* (1878), 3 Q. B. D. 607.

(*e*) Law of Libel Amendment Act, 1888, s. 7.

(*f*) *Ex parte Lees* (1858), 1 El. B. & E. 828; *Castro* v. *Murray* (1875), L. R. 10 Ex. 213

(*g*) 1 Vern. 170, 175; *Ex parte Newton* (1855), 4 El. & Bl. 869; *Mansell* v. *The Queen* (1857), 8 El. & Bl. 54; 8 St. Tri. (N.S.) 831.

with effect, personally to appear in court on the day on which judgment thereon shall be given, and, in case the judgment be affirmed, forthwith to render himself to prison according to the judgment (*h*).

When the judgment is reversed upon a writ of error in any criminal case, the Crown Cases Act, 1848, section 5, provides, that it shall be competent to the court of error, either to pronounce the proper judgment itself, or to remit the record to the court below, in order that that court may pronounce the proper judgment (*i*) ; and if the judgment be affirmed, or the writ of error quashed, then by 16 & 17 Vict. (1853) c. 32, section 4, the court may forthwith commit the plaintiff in error to prison (if then present in court), or (if he be not present) then by the same Act, section 5, on its being made to appear to a judge that the recognizances have been estreated, and that default has been made for the space of four days in rendering the plaintiff in error to prison, the judge may issue a warrant for his apprehension.

[The effect of reversing a judgment of *outlawry* is, that the party shall be in the same plight as if he had appeared upon the *capias*. And therefore if the reversal be before plea pleaded, he shall be put to plead to the indictment ; and if after conviction, he shall receive the sentence of the law. For all the other proceedings, except only the process of outlawry for his non-appearance, remain good and effectual as before. On the other hand, when judgment pronounced upon the *conviction* of the person indicted is reversed, all former proceedings against him are absolutely set aside, and the party stands as if he had never been at all accused. But he still remains liable to another prosecution for the same offence ; for the first being erroneous, he never was in jeopardy thereby.]

(*h*) *Dugdale* v. *The Queen* (1853), Dears. C. C. 254.

(*i*) *Holloway* v. *The Queen* (1851), 17 Q. B. 317.

CHAPTER XXI.

OF REPRIEVE AND PARDON.

I. [A Reprieve, from *reprendre*, to take back, is the withdrawing of a sentence for an interval of time, whereby the execution of a criminal is suspended. And such reprieve may be, in the first place, *ex mandato regis*, that is, at the mere pleasure of the Crown, expressed to the court by which the execution is awarded (*a*); or the reprieve may be *ex arbitrio judicis*, and that either before or after judgment, as where the judge is not satisfied with the verdict, or the evidence is suspicious, or the indictment is insufficient, or sometimes if any favourable circumstances appear in the criminal's character, in order to give room to apply to the Crown for either an absolute or a conditional pardon (*b*).

Reprieves may also be *ex necessitate legis;* as, where a woman is capitally convicted, and pleads her pregnancy, though this is no cause to stay the judgment, yet it is to respite the execution till she be delivered. This is a mercy dictated by the law of nature, *in favorem prolis;* and it was recognized by the laws of antient Rome (*c*), and has been the accepted law of England since the very first memorials of our law (*d*). In case this plea be made in stay of execution, the judge directs a jury of twelve matrons or discreet women to inquire the fact; and if they bring in their verdict *quick with child* (for, barely

(*a*) 1 Hale, P. C. 368; 2 Hale, P. C. 412; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 51, s. 8.

(*b*) 2 Hale, P. C. 412.

(*c*) Dig. 48, 19, 3.

(*d*) Flet. l. 1, c. 38.

[*with child*, unless it be alive in the womb, is not sufficient), execution shall be stayed generally till the next session, and so from session to session, till either she is delivered, or proves by the course of nature not to have been with child at all. But if she once hath had the benefit of this reprieve, and has been delivered, and afterwards becomes pregnant again, she shall not be entitled to the benefit of a further respite for that cause (*e*). For she may now be executed before the child is quick in the womb, and shall not by her incontinence evade the sentence of the law.

Another cause of regular reprieve is, if the offender become *non compos*, between the judgment and the award of execution (*f*); for, by the common law, on which, as formerly shown, some new provisions have now been engrafted by the legislature, though a man be sane when he commits a capital crime, yet if he becomes *non compos* after, he shall not be indicted; if after indictment, he shall not be convicted; if after conviction, he shall not receive judgment; if after judgment, he shall not be ordered for execution; if after such order, it shall not be carried out. For "*furiosus solo furore punitur*"; and the law knows not but he might have offered some reason, if in his senses, to have stayed these respective proceedings. It is, therefore, the rule to demand of the prisoner, after he has been found guilty, what he hath to allege, why execution should not be awarded against him; and if he then appears to be insane, the judge in his discretion may and ought to reprieve him.

II. In the absence of pregnancy, insanity, non-identity, or other special reason to stay the execution, which collateral question, if raised by way of plea in bar of execution should, as the general rule, be determined forthwith by a jury for that purpose then empanelled (*g*), and of which no peremptory challenges are allowed the

(*e*) 1 Hale, P. C. 369.
(*f*) *Ibid.* 370.
(*g*) *R.* v. *Corbet and Okey* (1662), 1 Sid. 72; Fost. 42.

[prisoner (*h*), the last resort is an act of grace, or the king's most gracious PARDON, the granting of which is the most amiable prerogative of the Crown. Law, says an able writer, cannot be framed on principles of compassion to guilt, yet justice is bound to be administered in mercy; this is promised by the king in his coronation oath; and it is that act of his government which is the most personal, and most entirely his own, although commonly and properly exerciseable only on the recommendation of the Home Secretary (*i*). The king himself condemns no man; that rugged task he leaves to his courts of justice; the great operation of his sceptre is mercy. His power of pardoning was said, by our Saxon ancestors, to be derived *a lege suæ dignitatis* (*k*); and it is declared in parliament, by statute 27 Hen. VIII. (1535), c. 24, that no other person hath power to pardon or remit any treason or felonies whatsoever; but that the king hath the whole and sole power thereof, united and knit to the imperial crown of this realm (*l*).

It is indeed one of the great advantages of monarchy, in general, above any other form of government, that there is a magistrate who has it in his power to extend mercy, wherever he thinks it is deserved: and although some publicists have maintained that in a perfect system of legislation, whose punishments were mild but certain, there would be no occasion for the clemency of the prince (*m*), still the exclusion of pardons would be of very dangerous consequence (*n*). And in spite of the contrary opinion of the president Montesquieu (*o*), the prerogative

(*h*) *R.* v. *Okey* (1662), 1 Lev. 61; Fost. 42, 46; Staundf. P. C. 163; Co. Litt. 157; Hal. *Sum.* 259.

(*i*) *Law of Forfeit*, 99.

(*k*) Wilk. *Leg. Ang.-Sax.* LL. Edw. Conf. c. 18.

(*l*) It is laid down, that this power belongs only to a king *de facto*, and not to a king *de jure*, during the time of the usurpation (Bro. Abr. *Charter de Pardon*, 22).

(*m*) Beccar. c. 46.

(*n*) *Ibid.* c. 4.

(*o*) *Esprit*, b. 6, c. 5.

[of pardoning may be exercised in democracies as well as in monarchies; although it is in monarchies that the exercise of this prerogative is most convenient in practice, and most striking to the popular imagination.

Regarding this prerogative of pardon, we may, in the first place, observe, that the king may, in general, pardon all offences which are offences merely against the Crown or the public. But to this there are the following exceptions:—(1.) To preserve the liberty of the subject, the committing any man to prison out of the realm, was, by the Habeas Corpus Act, 1679, made a *præmunire*, unpardonable even by the king; (2.) The king cannot pardon, where private justice is principally concerned in the prosecution of offenders,—"*non potest rex gratiam "facere cum injuriâ et damno aliorum*" (*p*). For example, he cannot pardon a common nuisance, while it remains unredressed, or so as to prevent an abatement of it, though afterwards he may remit the fine; and this, because though the prosecution is vested in the king to avoid multiplicity of suits, yet this offence, during its continuance, savours more of the nature of a *private* injury to each individual in the neighbourhood, than of a *public* wrong (*q*).] However, by the Remission of Penalties Act, 1859, his Majesty is now expressly enabled to remit, wholly or in part, any sum of money which under any Act may be imposed upon a convicted offender, although such money may be wholly or in part payable to some party other than the Crown; and if such offender has been imprisoned in default of payment, may nevertheless extend to him the royal mercy (*r*).

(*p*) 3 Inst. 236.

(*q*) Hawk P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 33.

(*r*) *Todd* v. *Robinson* (1884), 12 Q. B. D. 530; *Bradlaugh* v. *Clarke* (1883), 8 App. Ca. 354 See also Larceny Act, 1861, s. 109; Malicious Damage Act, 1861, s. 67, as to the remission of penalties imposed on a *summary conviction*, for offences made so punishable under those Acts. And see, also, the Remission of Penalties Act, 1875, with reference to penalties and forfeitures incurred for the non-observance of Sunday.

[There is also a restriction of a peculiar nature, that affects the prerogative of pardoning, in case of parliamentary impeachments, viz., that the king's pardon cannot be *pleaded* to any such impeachment, so as to impede the inquiry, or so as to stop the prosecution of great and notorious offenders. Therefore when, in the reign of Charles the Second, the Earl of Danby was impeached by the house of commons of high treason and other misdemeanors, and pleaded the king's pardon in bar of the impeachment, the commons alleged, "that there was no precedent that ever "any pardon was granted to any person impeached by the "commons of high treason, or other high crimes, *depend-*"*ing the impeachment*" (*s*); and thereupon resolved, "that "the pardon so pleaded was illegal and void, and ought "not to be allowed *in bar* of the impeachment of the "commons of England" (*t*). For this resolution they assigned this reason to the house of lords,—"that the set-"ting up a pardon to be a *bar* of an impeachment, defeats "the whole use and effect of impeachments, as totally "discouraging the exhibiting any for the future, whereby "the chief institution for the preservation of the govern-"ment would be destroyed" (*u*). And soon after the Revolution, the commons renewed the same claim, and voted "that a pardon is not pleadable in bar of an "impeachment" (*x*): and at length it was enacted, by the Act of Settlement, "that no pardon under the Great "Seal of England shall be pleadable to an impeachment "by the commons in parliament" (*y*). But after the impeachment has been solemnly heard and determined, it is not understood that the king's royal grace is further restrained or abridged; for after the impeachment and attainder of the six rebel lords in 1715, three of them were from time to time reprieved by the Crown, and at length

(*s*) Com. Journ. 28 April, 1679.
(*t*) *Ibid.* 5 May, 1679.
(*u*) *Ibid.* 26 May, 1679.
(*x*) *Ibid.* 6 June, 1689.
(*y*) Hallam, *Const. Hist.* vol. 2, p. 411 (7th ed.); *R. v. Boyes* (1861), 1 B. & Sm. 311.

[received the benefit of the king's most gracious pardon (*z*).] And here we may observe, that the commons in parliament may also by their own abstention pardon, or in effect pardon, a person convicted on an impeachment; for the lords may not pronounce judgment, unless judgment be first demanded by the commons (*a*).

As to the manner of pardoning.—1. First, it may be by warrant, either under the great seal or under the sign-manual (*b*); for although a warrant under the sign-manual was at one time held not competent to confer a complete irrevocable pardon, yet by the Criminal Law Act, 1827, section 13, where the Crown is pleased to extend the royal mercy to any offender convicted of any capital or other felony, and by warrant under the royal sign-manual, (countersigned by a principal secretary of state,) grants either a free or a conditional pardon, the discharge of the offender out of custody in the case of a free pardon, or on

(*z*) The following remarkable record proves, that the king's prerogative to pardon delinquents convicted in impeachments is as antient as the constitution itself: "*Item prie la commune a nostre dit* "*seigneur le roi, que nul pardon* "*soit grante a nully persone, petit* "*ne grande, q'ont este de son* "*counseil et serementez, et sont* "*empeschez en cest present parle-*"*ment de vie ne de membre, fyn ne* "*de raunceon, de forfaiture des* "*terres, tenemenz, biens, ou* "*chatenx, lesqueux sont ou serront* "*trorez en aucun defaut encontre* "*leur ligeance, et la tenure de leur* "*dit serement; mais q'ils ne* "*serront jammes conseillers ne* "*officers du roi, mais en tout* "*oustez de la courte le roi et de* "*conseil as touz jours. Et sur ceo* "*soit en present parlement fait* "*estatut s'il plest au roi, et de touz* "*autres en temps a venir en cas* "*semblables, bur profit du roi et* "*de roialme.*"

"*Responsio: Le roi ent fra sa* "*rolante, come mieltz lui* "*semblera.*" — Rot. Parl. 50 Edw. 3, n. 188.

(*a*) Lord Macclesfield was found guilty, without a dissenting voice, in the house of lords: but when the question was afterwards proposed in the house of commons, "*that this house demand judgment* "*of the lords against Thomas earl* "*of Macclesfield,*" a warm debate ensued, the previous question being moved. (Com. Journ, 27 May, 1725; 16 St. Tr. 767.)

(*b*) A form of pardon under the Great Seal in a modern case—the offence pardoned being bribery at a parliamentary election—will be found in the case of *R.* v. *Boyes*, *ubi supra*.

the performance of the condition in the case of a conditional pardon, has the effect of a pardon under the great seal; subject only to this, that no such warrant is to affect in any way the punishment to which, on a subsequent conviction for any felony committed after such warrant, the offender would otherwise be liable. 2. Secondly, there may also be a constructive pardon without warrant, by the mere endurance of the appropriate punishment; for, by the Civil Rights of Convicts Act, 1828, section 3, it is enacted, that where any offender shall be convicted of any felony not punishable with death, and shall endure the punishment to which he hath been adjudged for the same, the punishment so endured shall have the like effect and consequence as a pardon under the great seal, as to the felony whereof the offender was so convicted (*c*), subject only as a pardon by warrant under the sign-manual is hereinbefore expressed to be subject. 3. [It is a general rule, that whenever it may reasonably be presumed that the king is deceived, the pardon is void (*d*); and therefore any suppression of truth, or suggestion of falsehood, in a charter of pardon, will vitiate the whole, for the king was misinformed (*e*). 4. General words have also a very imperfect effect in pardons; *e.g.*, a pardon of "all felonies," will not pardon one in respect of which a conviction has been already had, for it is presumed the king knew not of those proceedings: but such conviction must be particularly mentioned (*f*). 5. It was also enacted, by the 13 Rich. II. (1389), st. 2, c. 1, that no pardon for treason, murder, or rape, should be allowed, unless the offence were particularly specified therein; and that, in a case of murder, it should be expressed whether it was committed by lying in wait,

(*c*) *Leyman* v. *Latimer* (1877), 3 Ex. D. 15, 352.

(*d*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 8.

(*e*) 3 Inst. 238; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 46.

(*f*) Hawk. *ubi sup.* s. 8. See also s. 9, where he says, that general pardons are commonly made by Act of Parliament, and have been rarely granted by the Crown.

[assault, or malice prepense. Upon which Sir Edward Coke observes, that it was not the intention of the parliament, that the king should ever pardon murder under these aggravations; and therefore they prudently laid the pardon under these restrictions, because they did not conceive it possible that the king would ever excuse an offence by name, which was attended with such high aggravations (*g*). Yet pardons for such murders have been frequently granted since that period, and even under the general description of a felonious killing; there being always inserted therein, until the time of the Revolution, a *non obstante* of the statute of king Richard (*h*). But it having been declared by the Bill of Rights, that no dispensation by *non obstante* of any statute should be thenceforth allowed, such general description would now seem to be insufficient (*i*). Under these and a few other restrictions, it is a general rule, that a pardon shall be taken most beneficially *for* the subject and most strongly *against* the king (*k*). A pardon may also be *conditional*, that is, the king may extend his mercy upon terms, annexing to his bounty a condition, on the performance whereof the validity of the pardon will depend (*l*); and in the pardon of one who has been convicted and sentenced to death, a usual condition is the endurance of imprisonment or penal servitude, in the discretion of the Crown (*m*).

(*g*) 3 Inst. 236.

(*h*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 17. Although it was once a question, whether murder could be the subject of a pardon (6 Edw. 1 (1278), st. 1, c. 9; 2 Edw. 3 (1328), c. 2; and 14 Edw. 3 (1340), st. 1, c. 15), it is now settled, that the pardon of murder is as much within the prerogative of the Crown as the pardon of any other offence. (*R.* v. *Parsons* (1691), 1 Show. 283; 2 Salk. 499; 4 Mod. 61; 3 Inst. 236; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 14.)

(*i*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 17.

(*k*) 4 Rep. 49 b.

(*l*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 45.

(*m*) By the Transportation Act, 1824, whenever the Crown extended mercy to an offender convicted of a capital crime on condition of his transportation beyond the seas, he was allowed the benefit of a conditional pardon;

[6. A pardon may also be granted by Act of Parliament; and this kind of pardon is more beneficial than a pardon by the king's charter. For if the Act be a public Act, a man is not bound to plead it, but the court must *ex officio* take notice of it (*n*); neither can the offender lose the benefit of this pardon by his own *laches* or negligence, as he may of the king's charter of pardon (*o*). The king's charter of pardon must be specially pleaded, and that at a proper time; for if a man is indicted, and has a pardon in his pocket, and afterwards puts himself upon his trial by pleading not guilty, he has waived the benefit of such pardon (*p*). But if a man avails himself thereof, as soon as by course of law he may, a pardon may either be pleaded upon arraignment, or in arrest of judgment, or in bar of execution. Antiently, by the 10 Edw. III. (1336), st. 1, c. 2, no pardon of felony could be allowed, unless the party found sureties for his good behaviour, before the sheriff and coroners of the county (*q*); but that statute was repealed by the 5 & 6 W. & M. (1694), c. 13, which, instead thereof, gave the judges a discretionary power to bind the criminal pleading such pardon to his good behaviour, with two sureties, for any term not exceeding seven years.

Lastly, the Effect of a pardon by the king is to make the offender a new man: to acquit him of all corporal penalties and forfeitures annexed to that offence for which he obtains his pardon; and not so much to restore his

and an order for his immediate transportation was made by the court. And, by the Penal Servitude Act, 1857, whenever the pardon is on condition that the offender shall be kept in *penal servitude*, the same effect follows as formerly in the case of the condition being transportation beyond seas. See also the Transportation Act, 1843, and the Penal Servitude Act, 1853.

(*n*) Fost. 43; 13 & 14 Vict. (1850), c. 21 ("Lord Brougham's Act"), s. 7.

(*o*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 59.

(*p*) *Ibid.* s. 67.

(*q*) *R.* v. *Parsons* (1691), 1 Show. 283.

[former, as to give him new, credit and capacity (*r*).] And it seems to be settled, that a pardon of treason or felony will enable a man to have an action for slander against anyone who shall thenceforth call him either traitor or felon (*s*) : and, also, that, on accepting a pardon from the Crown, the offender cannot refuse to give evidence respecting the offence pardoned, on the ground of possible danger to himself therefrom, if he should be afterwards impeached for the same offence by the house of commons, unless, indeed, there should be in fact some reasonable ground for his apprehension that such an impeachment is impending (*t*).

(*r*) Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 37, s. 48.

(*s*) *Ibid.* ; *Leyman* v. *Latimer* (1877), 3 Ex. D. 15, 352, in which case, it was held, that the same effect follows the endurance of the punishment awarded. And see *Hay* v. *Justices of the Tower Division of London* (1890), 24 Q. B. D. 561.

(*t*) *R.* v. *Boyes* (1861), 1 B. & Sm. 311.

CHAPTER XXII.

OF EXECUTION.

It now remains to speak of the Execution which follows upon conviction and sentence. Execution of a sentence of death is to be carried out by the sheriff or his deputy (*a*), [whose warrant for so doing was antiently by precept under the hand and seal of the judge, as in the court of the lord high steward, upon the execution of a peer (*b*) ; though, in the court of the peers in parliament, it is by writ from the king. Afterwards it was established, that, in case of life, the judge may command execution to be done without any writ (*c*). And now the usage is, for the judge to sign the calendar, or list of all the prisoners' names, with their separate judgments in the margin, which is left with the sheriff as his warrant or authority ; and, if the sheriff receive afterwards no special order to the contrary, he executes the judgment of the law accordingly (*d*).]

[The sheriff, upon receipt of his warrant from the judge of the assize, is to do execution within a convenient time, which is left at large (*e*) ; and the rule in this respect at

(*a*) Although prisoners in general are now removed from the custody of the sheriff, by the effect of the Prison Acts, 1865 and 1877, yet it is provided, that nothing therein contained shall affect the sheriff's jurisdiction or responsibility, in respect of persons under *sentence of death* and confined in any prison within its jurisdiction ; or his jurisdiction or control over the prison where such prisoners are confined, and the officers thereof, so far as may be necessary for the purpose of carrying into effect such sentence, or for any purpose relating thereto.

(*b*) 2 Hale, P. C. 409.

(*c*) Finch, L. 478.

(*d*) *R.* v. *Bethel* (1695), 5 Mod. 19.

(*e*) The *time* of the execution is by law no part of the judgment (see 4 Bl. Com. 397, where this is said to have been held by the

the Central Criminal Court is now the same as at the assizes (*f*). But if the prisoner be tried at the bar of the King's Bench Division of the High Court, or be brought there by *habeas corpus*, a rule is made for the execution, either specifying the time or leaving it to the discretion of the sheriff (*g*). And though there is no general rule as to the time of execution after judgment, it has been well observed, that it is of great importance that the punishment should follow the crime as early as possible (*h*).

The sheriff cannot alter the manner of the execution, by substituting one death for another, without being guilty of felony himself ; and it was held by Sir Edward Coke (*i*) and Sir Matthew Hale (*k*), that even the king could not change the punishment of the law, by altering hanging or burning into beheading, though, when beheading was part of the sentence, the king might remit the rest. And notwithstanding some examples to the contrary, Sir Edward Coke stoutly maintains, that "*judicandum est* "*legibus, non exemplis ;*" but others have thought, that this prerogative, being founded in mercy, and immemorially exercised by the Crown, was part of the common law (*l*). When Lord Stafford was executed in the reign of King Charles the Second, the then sheriffs of London, having received the king's writ for beheading him,

twelve judges, Mich. 10 Geo. 3). As to the *place* of execution, it is now, in all executions for *murder*, required, by the Capital Punishment Amendment Act, 1868, to be within the walls of the prison in which the prisoner shall be confined at the time of execution.

(*f*) Central Criminal Court Act, 1837. Before that statute, the course (so far as regards the Central Criminal Court) was, that the recorder reported to the king, in person, the several cases ; and if he received the royal pleasure that the law must take its course, he then issued his warrant to the sheriffs, directing them to do execution at a specified time and place (4 Bl. Com. 397).

(*g*) St. Tr. vi. 332 ; Fost. 43 ; *Atkinson* v. *The King* (1785), 3 Bro. Cases in Parl. 517 ; *Mansell* v. *The Queen* (1857), 8 El. & Bl. 54 ; 8 St. Tri. (N.S.) 831.

(*h*) Beccar. c. 19.

(*i*) 3 Inst. 52.

(*k*) 2 Hale, P. C. 412.

(*l*) Fost. 270 ; F. N. B. 144, h ; 19 Rym. *Fœd.* 284.

petitioned the house of lords for a command or order from their lordships how the judgment should be executed; for, he being prosecuted by impeachment, they entertained a notion, (which is said to have been countenanced by Lord Russell,) that the king could not pardon any part of the sentence (*m*). But the lords resolved, that the scruples of the sheriffs were unnecessary, and declared that the king's writ ought to be obeyed (*n*). Disappointed of raising a flame in that assembly, they immediately signified to the house of commons, by one of the members, that they were not satisfied as to the power of the said writ (*o*); whereupon the commons took two days to consider of the matter, and then sullenly resolved, that the house was *content* that the sheriff do execute Lord Stafford by severing his head from his body (*p*). It is related, that when the same Lord Russell was afterwards himself condemned for high treason upon indictment, the king, while he remitted the ignominious part of the sentence, observed, "that "his lordship would now find he was possessed of that "prerogative which, in the case of Lord Stafford, he had "denied him" (*q*).

It is clear, that if, upon judgment to be hanged by the neck till he is dead, the criminal be not thoroughly killed, but revives, the sheriff must hang him again (*r*), the former hanging being no execution of the sentence; and if a false tenderness were to be indulged in such cases, a multitude of collusions might ensue. Nay, even at the time when abjurations were in force, such a criminal, so reviving, was not allowed to take sanctuary and abjure the realm: but his fleeing to sanctuary was held an escape in the officer (*s*).]

(*m*) 2 Hume, 328.
(*n*) Lords' Journ. 21 Dec. 1680.
(*o*) Com. Journ. 21 Dec. 1680.
(*p*) *Ibid.* 23 Dec. 1680.
(*q*) 2 Hume, 360.
(*r*) 2 Hale, P. C. 412; Hawk. P. C. b. 2, c. 51, s. 7.
(*s*) Fitzh. Abr. tit. *Corone*, 335; Finch, L. 467.

CONCLUSION.

OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND GRADUAL IMPROVEMENT, OF THE LAWS OF ENGLAND.

[BEFORE we enter on our present subject, in which it is proposed, by way of supplement to the whole work, to attempt an historical review of the most remarkable changes and alterations that have happened in the laws of England, it must be observed, that the origin and growth of many of the principal points and doctrines of the law have been already pointed out in the course of these Commentaries, under their respective divisions; and these having, therefore, been particularly discussed already, will not be re-examined here with any degree of minuteness. What we at present propose, is only to mark certain outlines in the history of the development of English jurisprudence, taking a chronological view of the state of our laws, and of their successive ameliorations at different periods of time.

The several periods which we shall consider are the following:—1. From the earliest times to the Norman Conquest: 2. From the Norman Conquest to the reign of king Edward the First: 3. From thence to the Reformation: 4. From the Reformation to the Restoration of king Charles the Second: 5. From thence to the Revolution in 1688: 6. From the Revolution to the present time.

I. And, first, with regard to the antient Britons, the *aborigines* of our island, so little has been handed down to us concerning them, that our inquiries here must necessarily be defective. However, from Cæsar's account of

[the tenets and discipline of the antient Druids in Gaul, in whom centred all the learning of these western parts, and who were, as he tells us, sent over to Britain, (that is, to the Island of Mona or Anglesea,) to be instructed, we may collect a few points, which bear a great affinity and resemblance to some of the modern doctrines of our English law. Particularly, the very notion itself of an oral unwritten law, delivered down from age to age by custom and tradition merely, seems derived from the practice of the Druids, who never committed any of their instructions to writing, possibly for want of letters ; since it is remarkable that in all the antiquities, unquestionably British, which the industry of modern antiquarians has discovered, there is not in any of them the least trace of any character or letter to be found. The partible quality also of lands, by the custom of gavelkind, which still obtains in many parts of England, and which universally obtained over Wales till the reign of Henry the Eighth, is undoubtedly of British original ; as is also the antient division of the goods of an intestate between his widow and children, or next of kin, which has since been revived by the Statute of Distributions. And, to refer to a matter of a very different character, the practice of burning a woman found guilty of the crime of petit treason by killing her husband (*a*), is also apparently of Druidical origin.

The great variety of nations, that successively broke in upon and destroyed the antient British constitution, (the Romans, the Picts, and, after them, the various clans of Saxons and Danes,) must necessarily have caused a great confusion and uncertainty in the laws of the kingdom ; as they were very soon incorporated and blended together, and therefore, we may suppose, mutually communicated to each other their respective usages, in regard to the rights of property and the punishment of crimes (*b*). So

(*a*) *Vide sup.* p. 63. (*b*) Hale, *Hist. C. L.* 62.

[that it is morally impossible to trace out, with any degree of accuracy, *when* the several mutations of the common law were made, or *what* was the respective original of those several customs we at present use, by any chemical resolution of them to their first and component principles (*c*). We can seldom pronounce, that *this* custom was derived from the Britons; *that* was left behind by the Romans; *this* was a necessary precaution against the Picts; *that* was introduced by the Saxons, discontinued by the Danes, but afterwards restored by the Normans.

Whenever this can be done, it is a matter of great curiosity, and of some use; but this can very rarely be the case, not only from the reason above mentioned, but also from many others. First, from the nature of traditional laws in general; which, being accommodated to the exigencies of the times, suffer by degrees insensible variations in practice (*d*). So that, though upon comparison we plainly discern the alteration of the law from what it was five hundred years ago, yet it is impossible to define the precise period in which that alteration accrued; any more than we can discern the changes of the bed of a river, which varies its shores by continual decreases and alluvions. Secondly, this becomes impracticable from the antiquity of the kingdom and its government; which alone, though it had been disturbed by no foreign invasions, would make it impossible to search out the original of its laws, unless we had as authentic monuments thereof, as the Jews had by the hand of Moses (*e*). Thirdly, this uncertainty of the true origin of particular customs must also in part have arisen from the means whereby Christianity was propagated among our Saxon ancestors in this island; by learned foreigners brought over from Rome and other countries,

(*c*) "It is an impossible piece of "chemistry," says Hale, "to re- "duce every *caput legis* to its true "original," &c. — Hale, *ubi sup.* 64.

(*d*) *Ibid.* 57.

(*e*) *Ibid.* 59.

[who undoubtedly carried with them many of their own national customs, and probably prevailed upon the state to abrogate such usages as were inconsistent with our holy religion, and to introduce many others that were more conformable thereto. And this perhaps may have partly been the cause, that we find not only some rules of the Mosaical, but also of the imperial and pontifical laws, blended and adopted into our own system.

A further reason may also be given for the great variety, and of course the uncertain original, of our antient established customs, even after the Saxon government was firmly established in this island: viz., the sub-division of the kingdom into many independent kingdoms, peopled and governed by different clans and colonies. This must necessarily have created an infinite diversity of laws: even though all those colonies, of Jutes, Angles, proper Saxons, and the like, originally sprung from the same mother-country, the great northern hive, which poured forth its warlike progeny, and swarmed all over Europe, in the sixth and seventh centuries. This multiplicity of laws will necessarily be the case, in some degree, where any kingdom is cantoned out into provincial establishments, and not under one common dispensation of laws, though under the same sovereign power. Much more will this happen, where so many unconnected states are to form their own constitution and superstructure of government, though they all begin to build upon the same or similar foundations.

When therefore the West Saxons had swallowed up all the rest, and King Alfred succeeded to the monarchy of England, whereof his grandfather Egbert was the founder, his mighty genius prompted him, we are told, to undertake a most great and necessary work, which he is said to have executed in as masterly a manner. No less than to new model the constitution, to rebuild it on a plan that should endure for ages, and out of its old discordant materials, which were heaped upon each other in a vast

[and rude irregularity, to form one uniform and well-connected whole. This he effected, by reducing the whole kingdom under one regular and gradual subordination of government, wherein each man was answerable to his immediate superior for his own conduct and for that of his nearest neighbours. For it is said that we owe to him that masterpiece of judicial policy, the subdivision of England into tithings and hundreds, if not into counties, all under the influence and administration of one supreme magistrate, the king, in whom, as in a general reservoir, all the executive authority of the law was lodged, and from whom justice was dispersed to every part of the nation, by distinct, yet communicating, ducts and channels ; which wise institution has been preserved for near a thousand years unchanged, from Alfred's time to the present. He also, like another Theodosius, collected (it is said) the various customs that he found dispersed in the kingdom, and reduced and digested them into one uniform system or code of laws, in his Som-bec, or *liber judicialis*. This he compiled for the use of the court baron, the hundred court, the sheriff's county court, the court-leet, and the sheriff's tourn ; tribunals which he established, for the trial of all causes civil and criminal, in the districts wherein the complaint arose, all of them subject however to be inspected, controlled, and kept within the bounds of the universal or common law by the king's own courts, which were then itinerant, being kept in the king's palace and removing with his household, in those royal progresses which he continually made from one end of the kingdom to the other (*f*).

The Danish invasion and conquest, which introduced

(*f*) The legend which attributes to Alfred the actual invention of all these institutions is, of course, only an example of the tendency of tradition to assign a personal authorship to famous measures, the origin of which is obscure. In particular, the theory of the king as the fountain of all justice is comparatively modern ; and the common law itself is not older than the thirteenth century.—E. J.

[new foreign customs, was a severe blow to this noble fabric ; but a plan so excellently concerted could never be long thrown aside. So that, upon the expulsion of these intruders, the English returned to their antient laws, retaining, however, some few of the customs of their late visitants, which went under the name of *Dane Lage*, as the code compiled by Alfred was called the *West-Saxon Lage*, and the local constitutions of the antient kingdom of Mercia, which obtained in the counties nearest to Wales, and probably abounded with many British customs, were called the *Mercen Lage*. And these three laws were, about the beginning of the eleventh century, in use in different counties of this realm ; the provincial policy of counties and their subdivisions having never been altered or discontinued through all the shocks and mutations of government, from the time of its first institution, though the laws and customs therein used, have (as we shall see) often suffered considerable changes.

For King Edgar, who, besides his military merit as founder of the English navy, was also a most excellent civil governor, observing the ill effects of three distinct bodies of laws prevailing at once in separate parts of his dominions, projected and began what his grandson King Edward the Confessor afterwards completed, viz., one uniform digest or body of laws to be observed throughout the whole kingdom, being probably no more than a revival of King Alfred's code, with some improvements suggested by necessity and experience, particularly the incorporating some of the British or rather Mercian customs, and also such of the Danish customs as were reasonable and approved, into the *West-Saxon Lage*, which was still the ground-work of the whole. And this appears to be the best supported and most plausible conjecture (for certainty is not to be expected), of the rise and original of that admirable system of maxims and unwritten customs, which is now known by the name of the common law of England, as extending its authority

[universally over all the realm, which is doubtless of Saxon parentage (*g*).

Among the most remarkable of the Saxon laws, we may reckon, (1.) The constitution of parliaments, or rather of general assemblies of the principal and wisest men in the nation,—the *wittenagemote* or *commune consilium* of the antient Germans, which was not yet reduced to the forms and distinctions of our modern parliament, without whose concurrence, however, no new law could be made or old one altered ; (2.) The election of their magistrates by the people, originally even that of their kings, till dear-bought experience evinced the convenience and necessity of establishing an hereditary succession to the Crown. But that of all subordinate magistrates,—their military officers or heretochs, their sheriffs, their conservators of the peace, their coroners, their portreeves (since changed into mayors and bailiffs), and even their tithing men and borsholders at the leet, continued. some till the Norman Conquest, others for two centuries after, and some remained to a very recent time ; (3.) The descent of the Crown, when once a royal family was established, upon nearly the same hereditary principles upon which it has ever since continued, only that perhaps, in case of minority, the next of kin of full age would ascend the throne as king, and not as protector, though after his death, the Crown immediately reverted back to the heir ; (4.) The great paucity of capital punishments for the first offence, even the most notorious offenders being allowed to commute it for a fine or *weregild*, or (in default of payment) for perpetual bondage, to which, in subsequent times, the benefit of

(*g*) That the local customs which, in the thirteenth century, were, by the action of the king's courts, and especially of the itinerant justices, welded into the *common law*, were largely of Anglo-Saxon origin, cannot be doubted; but there is certainly no proof that there was a common law, *i.e.*, a law common to the whole country, before the Conquest. The so-called *Laws of Edward the Confessor* are a private compilation, dating from the late twelfth century.—E. J.

[clergy in some measure succeeded ; (5.) The prevalence of certain customs—as heriots and military services in proportion to every man's land, which much resembled the feudal constitution, but yet were exempt from all its rigorous hardships, and which may be well enough accounted for by supposing them to have been brought from the continent by the first Saxon invaders, in the primitive moderation and simplicity of the feudal law, before it got into the hands of the Norman jurists, who extracted the most slavish doctrines and oppressive consequences out of what was originally intended as a law of liberty ; (6.) The liability of their estates to forfeiture for treason, while the doctrine of escheats and corruption of blood for felony, or for any other cause, was utterly unknown amongst them ; (7.) The descent of their lands to all the males equally, without any right of primogeniture, a custom which obtained among the Britons, was agreeable to the Roman law, and continued among the Saxons till the Norman Conquest, though really inconvenient, and more especially destructive to antient families, which are in monarchies necessary to be supported, in order to form and keep up a nobility, or intermediate state between the prince and the common people ; (8.) The courts of justice—consisting principally of the sheriff's county court, and (in cases of weight or nicety) the king's court held before himself in person, at the time of his parliaments, which were usually holden in different places, according as he kept the three great festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. An institution which was adopted by King Alonso the Seventh, of Castile, about a century after the Conquest, who, at the same three great feasts, was wont to assemble his nobility and prelates in his court, where they heard and decided all controversies (*h*). In these antient courts, the ecclesiastical and civil jurisdictions were blended together, the bishop and

(*h*) *Mod. Un. Hist.* xx. 114.

[the sheriff originally sitting together, and the decisions and proceedings therein were simple and unembarrassed, —an advantage which will always attend the infancy of any laws, but wears off as they gradually advance to maturity; (9.) Trials, among a people who had a very strong tincture of superstition, were permitted to be by *ordeal*, by the *corsned* (or morsel of execration), or by *wager of law* with compurgators; and to these may be added the occasional resort to modes of determining controversies, resembling (in some respects) the celebrated institution now known to us under the name of trial by jury. Thus stood the general frame of our policy at the time of the Norman invasion, when the second period of our legal history commences.

II. The Conquest wrought as great an alteration in our laws, as it did in our antient line of kings; and though the alteration of the former was effected rather by the consent of the people, than by any right of conquest, yet that consent seems to have been partly extorted by fear, and partly given without any apprehension of the consequences which afterwards ensued.

1. Among the first of these alterations, we may reckon the separation of the ecclesiastical courts from the civil, effected in order to ingratiate the king with the popish clergy, who for some time before had been endeavouring all over Europe to exempt themselves from the secular power, and whose demands the Conqueror (like a politic prince) thought it prudent to comply with, by reason that their reputed sanctity had a great influence over the minds of the people, and because all the little learning of the times was engrossed into their hands, which made them necessary men, and by all means to be gained over to his interests. And this was the more easily effected, because the disposal of all the episcopal sees being then in the breast of the king, he had taken care to fill them with Italian and Norman prelates.

[2. Another violent alteration of the English constitution consisted in the depopulation of whole countries for the purposes of the king's royal diversion, and subjecting both them and all the antient forests of the kingdom, to the unreasonable severities of the forest laws imported from the continent, whereby the slaughter of a beast was made almost as penal as the death of a man ; and though these laws were mitigated in the time of Henry the Third and in succeeding reigns, yet from this root afterwards sprung a bastard slip, known by the name of the game laws, by which none were permitted, in general, to take or sell game, even on their own estates, unless qualified by the ownership of land to the yearly value of at least 100*l.*],—an arbitrary restraint under which the subjects of this realm continued to labour, until its tardy abolition in the reign of William the Fourth.

3. [A third alteration in the English laws was by narrowing the remedial influence of the sheriff's county court, the great seat of Saxon justice, and by extending the *original* jurisdiction of the king's justiciars to all kinds of causes arising in all parts of the kingdom. To this end the *aula regis*, with all its multifarious authority, was erected, and a capital justiciary appointed, with powers so large and boundless, that he became at length a tyrant to the people, and formidable to the Crown itself. The constitution of this court, and the judges themselves who presided there, were fetched from the duchy of Normandy; and the consequence naturally was, that all proceedings in the king's court were ordained to be carried on in the Norman language instead of the English. A provision necessary, indeed, because none of his Norman justiciars understood English ; but as evident a badge of slavery as ever was imposed upon a conquered people. This lasted till King Edward the Third obtained a double victory, both over the armies of France in their own country, and over the language of France in our courts here at home. But there was one mischief too deeply rooted thereby, and

[which this caution of King Edward came too late to eradicate, that is to say, instead of the plain and easy method of determining suits in the sheriff's county court, the chicanes and subtleties of the Norman jurisprudence had taken possession of the king's court, to which every cause of consequence was drawn. The northern conquerors of Europe were then emerging from the grossest ignorance in point of literature ; and those who had leisure were such only as were cloistered in monasteries, the rest being all soldiers or peasants. And unfortunately the first rudiments of science which they imbibed were those of Aristotle's philosophy, conveyed through the medium of his Arabian commentators ; so that, though the materials upon which they were naturally employed, in the infancy of a rising state, were those of the noblest kind,—the establishment of religion, and the regulations of civil polity, —yet, having only such tools to work with, their execution was trifling and flimsy. Hence law in particular, which (being intended for universal reception) ought to be a plain rule of action, became a science of the greatest intricacy, especially when blended with the new refinements engrafted upon feudal property ; which refinements were from time to time gradually introduced by the Norman practitioners, with a view to supersede (as they did in great measure) the more homely, but more intelligible, maxims of distributive justice, which had theretofore prevailed among the Saxons.

4. A fourth innovation was the introduction of the trial by combat, for the decision of all civil and criminal questions in the last resort. This was the immemorial practice of all the northern nations, but was first reduced to regular and stated forms among the Burgundi, about the close of the fifth century ; and from them it passed to other nations, particularly the Franks and the Normans ; which last had the honour to establish it here, though clearly an unchristian (as well as a most uncertain) method of trial. But it was a sufficient recommendation

[of it to the Conqueror and his warlike countrymen, that it was the usage of their native duchy of Normandy.

5. But the last and most important alteration, both in our civil and military policy, was the engrafting on all landed estates (a few only excepted) of the fiction of feudal tenure, which drew after it a numerous and oppressive train of servile fruits and appendages,—aids, reliefs, primer seisins, wardships, marriages, escheats, and fines for alienation,—the genuine consequences of the maxim then adopted, that all the lands in England were derived from and holden, mediately or immediately, of the Crown.

The nation at this period seems to have groaned under as absolute a slavery as it was in the power of a warlike, ambitious, and politic prince to create. The consciences of men were enslaved by sour ecclesiastics, devoted to a foreign power, and unconnected with the civil state under which they lived, and who imported from Rome the whole *farrago* of superstitious novelties which had been engendered by the blindness and corruption of the times; such as transubstantiation, purgatory, communion in one kind, and the worship of saints and images, not forgetting the universal supremacy and dogmatical infallibility of the holy see. The laws, too, as well as the prayers, were administered in an unknown tongue; the antient trial by jury gave way to the impious decision by battle; the forest laws totally restrained all rural pleasures and manly recreations; and in cities and towns the case was no better, all company being obliged to disperse, and fire and candle to be extinguished, by eight at night, at the sound of the melancholy *curfew*. The ultimate property of all lands, and a considerable share of the present profits, were vested in the king, or by him granted out to his Norman favourites, who, by a gradual progression of slavery, were absolute vassals to the Crown, and as absolute tyrants to the commons. Unheard-of forfeitures, tallages, aids, and fines, were arbitrarily extracted from the pillaged landholders, in pursuance of the new system of tenure. And, to crown

[all, as a consequence of the tenure by knight service, the king had always ready at his command an army of knights or *milites*, bound, upon pain of confiscation of their estates, to attend him in time of invasion, or to quell any domestic insurrection. Trade, or foreign merchandise, such as it then was, was carried on by the Jews and Lombards, and the very name of an English fleet, which King Edgar had rendered so formidable, became utterly unknown to Europe ; the nation consisting wholly of the clergy (who were also the lawyers), the barons or great lords of the land, the knights or soldiery (who were the subordinate landholders), and the burghers or inferior tradesmen, who, from their insignificancy, happily retained (in their socage and burgage tenures) some points of their antient freedom. All the rest were villeins or bondmen.

From so complete and well concerted a scheme of servility, it has been the work of generations for our ancestors to redeem themselves and their posterity into that state of liberty which we now enjoy : which, therefore, is not to be looked upon as consisting of mere encroachments on the Crown, and infringements on the prerogative (as some slavish and narrow-minded writers have endeavoured to maintain), but as a gradual restoration of that antient constitution, whereof our Saxon forefathers had been unjustly deprived, partly by the policy, and partly by the force, of the Normans. How that restoration has in a long series of years been step by step effected, we now proceed to inquire.

William Rufus proceeded on his father's plan ; and in some points extended it, particularly with regard to the forest laws. But his brother and successor, Henry the First, found it expedient, when first he came to the Crown, to ingratiate himself with the people, by restoring (as our monkish historians tell us) the laws of King Edward the Confessor. The ground whereof is this : that by charter he gave up the great grievances of marriage, ward, and

[relief, the beneficial pecuniary *fruits* of his feudal tenures; but reserved the tenures themselves, for the same military purposes that his father introduced them. He also abolished the *curfew* (*i*); for though it is mentioned in our laws a full century afterwards (*k*), yet it is rather spoken of as a known *time* of night (so denominated from that abrogated usage) than as a still subsisting custom. There is extant a code of laws in his name, consisting partly of those of the Confessor, but with great additions and alterations of his own; and chiefly calculated for the regulation of the sheriff's county court. It contains some directions as to crimes and their punishments (that of theft being made capital in his reign), and a few things relating to estates, particularly as to the descent of lands; which (being by the Saxon laws equally to all the sons, and by the feudal or Norman to the eldest only) King Henry here moderated the difference, directing the eldest son to have only the principal estate, *primum patris feudum*, the rest of his estates (if he had any others) being equally divided among them all. On the other hand, he gave up to the clergy the free election of bishops and mitred abbots; reserving, however, the following ensigns of patronage, *congé d'elire*, custody of the temporalities when vacant, and homage upon their restitution. He lastly united again for a time the civil and ecclesiastical courts, which union was soon dissolved by his Norman clergy; and, upon that final dissolution, the cognizance of testamentary causes seems to have been first given to the ecclesiastical court. The rest remained as in his father's time: from whence we may easily perceive how far short this was, of a thorough restitution of King Edward's or the Saxon laws.

The usurper Stephen (as the manner of usurpers is) promised much at his accession, especially with regard to redressing the grievances of the forest laws, but per-

(*i*) Spelm. Cod. LL. W. 1, 288, Hen. 1, 299.

(*k*) Stat. Civ. Lond. 13 Edw. 1.

[formed no great matter either in that or in any other point. It is from his reign, however, that we are to date the introduction of the Roman civil and canon laws into this realm.

By the time of King Henry the Second, if not earlier, the Charter of Henry the First seems to have been forgotten; for we find the claims of marriage, ward, and relief then flourishing in full vigour. The right of primogeniture seems also to have tacitly revived, being found more convenient for the public than the parcelling of estates into a multitude of minute subdivisions. However, in this prince's reign, much was done to methodize the laws, and to reduce them into a regular order; as appears from that excellent treatise of Glanvil, which (though some of it be now antiquated and altered) yet carries a manifest superiority when compared with the so-called code of Henry the First (*l*). Throughout his reign, also, was continued the important struggle, which we have had occasion so often to mention, between the laws of England and Rome: the former supported by the strength of the temporal nobility, and the latter by the popish clergy. Which dispute was kept on foot till the reign of Edward the First, when the laws of England (under the new discipline introduced by that skilful commander) obtained a complete and permanent victory. In the reign of Henry the Second, now under consideration, there are four things which peculiarly merit the attention of a legal antiquary: (1) The constitutions of the council of Clarendon, A.D. 1164, whereby the king checked the power of the pope and his clergy, and greatly narrowed the total exemption they claimed from the secular jurisdiction, though his further progress was unhappily stopped, by the fatal event of the disputes between him and archbishop Becket; (2) The institution of the office of justices in eyre, *in itinere;* the king having divided the kingdom into six circuits, a little

(*l*) Hale, *Hist. C. L.* 138.

[different from the present, and having commissioned these new-created judges to administer justice and try writs of assize, in the several counties. Which remedies are said to have been then first invented, all causes having theretofore been determined in the sheriff's county courts, according to the Saxon custom, or before the king's justiciaries in the *aula regis*, in pursuance of the Norman regulations. The latter of which tribunals, travelling about with the king's person, occasioned intolerable expense and delay to the suitors, and the former (however proper for little debts and minute actions) were now become liable to too much ignorance of the law, and too much partiality as to facts, to determine matters of considerable moment ; (3) The introduction and establishment of the grand assize, or trial by special kind of jury, in a writ of right, at the option of the tenant or defendant, instead of the barbarous and Norman trial by battle ; and (4) The introduction of escuage or pecuniary commutation for personal military service, which in process of time was the parent of the antient subsidies granted to the Crown by parliament, and of the land-tax of later times.

Richard the First, a brave and magnanimous prince, was a sportsman as well as a soldier ; and therefore enforced the forest laws with some rigour. Which occasioned many discontents among his people ; though (according to Matthew Paris) he repealed the penalties of castration, loss of eyes, and cutting off the hands and feet, before inflicted on such as transgressed in hunting, probably finding that their severity prevented prosecutions. He also, when abroad, collected a body of naval laws named after the isle of Oleron, which are still extant, and of high authority ; for in his time we began again to discover that (as an island) we were naturally a maritime power. But, with regard to civil proceedings, we find nothing very remarkable in this reign, except a few regulations regarding the Jews, and the justices in eyre ; the king's thoughts being chiefly taken up by the knight

[errantry of his crusade against the Saracens in the Holy Land.

In King John's time, and that of his son, Henry the Third, the rigours of the feudal tenures and the forest laws were so warmly kept up, that they occasioned many insurrections of the barons or principal feudatories; which, at last, had this effect, that King John, and afterwards his son, consented to the two famous charters of English liberties,—*Magna Carta* and *Carta de Forestâ* (*m*). Of these the latter was well calculated to redress many grievances and encroachments of the Crown, in the exertion of forest laws; and the former confirmed many liberties of the Church, and redressed many grievances incident to feudal tenures, of no small moment at the time, though now, unless considered attentively and with this retrospect, they seem but of trifling concern. But, besides these feudal provisions, care was also taken therein to protect the subject against other oppressions, then frequently arising from unreasonable amercements, from illegal distresses, or other process for debts or services due to the Crown, and from the tyrannical abuse of the prerogative of purveyance and pre-emption. The charter also fixed the law relative to the forfeiture of lands for felony; and prohibited for the future the grants of exclusive fisheries, and the erection of new bridges, so as to oppress the neighbourhood. With regard to private rights, it established the testamentary power of the subject over part of his personal estate, the rest being distributed among his wife and children; regulated the law of dower; and prohibited the appeals of women, unless for the deaths of their husbands. In matters of public police and national concern, it enjoined an uniformity of weights and measures; gave new encouragement to commerce, by the protection of merchant

(*m*) The Forest Charter was, probably, not actually issued till after the death of John.

[strangers ; and forbade the alienation of lands in mortmain. With regard to the administration of justice, besides prohibiting all denials or delays of it, it fixed the Court of Common Pleas at Westminster, that the suitors might no longer be harassed with following the king's person in all his progresses, and, at the same time, brought the trial of issues home to the very doors of the freeholders, by directing assizes to be taken in the proper counties, and establishing annual circuits ; it also corrected some abuses incident to the trials by wager of law and of battle, directing the regular awarding of inquests for life or member ; it prohibited the king's inferior ministers from holding pleas of the Crown, or trying any criminal charge, whereby many forfeitures might otherwise have unjustly accrued to the exchequer ; and regulated the time and place of holding the inferior tribunals of justice, the sheriff's county court, the sheriff's tourn, and the court leet. It confirmed and established the liberties of the city of London, and all other cities, boroughs, towns, and ports of the kingdom. And, lastly, (which alone would have merited the title that it bears, of the *great* charter), it protected every *free man* of the nation in the enjoyment of his life, his liberty, and his property, unless declared to be forfeited by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land (*n*).

However, by means of these struggles, the pope, in the reign of King John, gained a still greater ascendant here than he had ever before enjoyed ; which continued through the long reign of his son, Henry the Third, in the beginning of whose time the old Saxon trial by ordeal

(*n*) The following is the celebrated 29th chapter of *Magna Charta*, the foundation of the liberty of Englishmen :—"*Nullus* "*liber homo capiatur, vel impri-* "*sonetur, aut dissaisiatur de libero* "*tenemento suo, vel libertatibus vel* "*liberis consuetudinibus suis, aut* "*utlagetur, aut exuletur, aut aliquo* "*modo destruatur ; nec super eum* "*ibimus, nec super eum mittemus,* "*nisi per legale judicium parium* "*suorum, vel per legem terræ.* "*Nulli vendemus, nulli negabimus* "*aut differemus rectum vel* "*justitiam.*"

[was also totally abolished. And we may, by this time, perceive in Bracton's treatise, a still further improvement in the method and regularity of the common law, especially in the point of pleadings (*o*). Nor must it be forgotten, that the first traces which remain of the separation of the greater barons from the less, in the constitution of parliaments, are found in the great charter of King John, though omitted in that of Henry the Third ; and that towards the end of the latter of these reigns, we find the first record of any writ for summoning knights, citizens, and burgesses to Parliament. And here we conclude the second period of our English legal history.

III. The third period commences with the reign of Edward the First, who hath justly been styled our English Justinian ; for in his time the law did receive so sudden a perfection, that Sir Matthew Hale does not scruple to affirm, that more was done in the first thirteen years of his reign to settle and establish the distributive justice of the kingdom, than in all the ages since that time put together (*p*). It would be endless to enumerate all the particulars of these regulations ; but the principal may be reduced under the following general heads. (1.) He established, confirmed, and settled the great charter and charter of forests ; (2.) He gave a mortal wound to the encroachments of the pope and his clergy, by limiting and establishing the bounds of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and by obliging the ordinary, to whom all the goods of intestates at that time belonged, to discharge the debts of the deceased ; (3.) He defined the limits of the several temporal courts of the highest jurisdiction,—those of the king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer,—so as they might not interfere with each other's proper business, to do which they were afterwards obliged to have recourse to fictions ; (4.) He settled the boundaries of the inferior courts, confining them to causes of no great amount,

(*o*) Hale, *Hist. C. L.* 156. (*p*) *Ibid.* 158.

[according to their primitive institution, though of considerably greater than (by the alteration of the value of money) they were afterwards permitted to determine ; (5.) He secured the property of the subject, by abolishing all arbitrary taxes and tallages levied without consent of the national council ; (6.) He guarded the common justice of the kingdom from abuses, by giving up the royal prerogative of sending mandates to interfere in private causes ; (7.) He settled the form, solemnities, and effect of fines levied in the Court of Common Pleas ; (8.) He first established a repository for the public records of the kingdom, few of which are more antient than the reign of his father, and those were by him collected ; (9.) He improved upon the laws of King Alfred, by that great and orderly method of watch and ward for preserving the public peace and preventing robberies established by the statute of Winchester : (10.) He settled and reformed many abuses incident to tenures, and removed some restraints on the alienation of landed property, by the statute of *Quia Emptores;* (11.) He instituted a speedier way for the recovery of debts, by granting execution not only upon goods and chattels, but also upon lands by writ of *elegit*, which was of signal benefit to a trading people ; and, upon the same commercial ideas, he also allowed the charging of lands in a statute merchant, to pay debts contracted in trade, contrary to all feudal principles ; (12.) He effectually provided for the recovery of advowsons, as temporal rights, in which the law was before extremely deficient ; (13.) He also closed the great gulf in which all the landed property of the kingdom was in danger of being swallowed up, by his reiterated statutes of mortmain, statutes most admirably adapted to meet the frauds that had then been devised, though afterwards contrived to be evaded by the invention of Uses ; (14.) He established a new limitation of property by the creation of estates tail, concerning the good policy of which, however, modern times have entertained a very

[different opinion ; and (15.) He reduced all Wales to the subjection not only of the Crown, but (in great measure) of the laws of England, an improvement which was afterwards thoroughly completed in the reign of Henry the Eighth ; and he seems to have entertained a design of doing the like by Scotland, so as to have formed an entire and complete union of the island of Great Britain.

This catalogue might be continued much further, but, upon the whole, we may observe, that the very scheme and model of the administration of common justice, between party and party, was entirely settled by this king (*q*), and has continued nearly the same, in all succeeding ages, to this day, abating some few alterations, which the humour or necessity of subsequent times hath occasioned. The forms of writs, by which actions were commenced, were remodelled in his reign ; the pleadings, consequent upon the writs, became then short, nervous, and perspicuous, not intricate, verbose, and formal ; the legal treatises, written in his time, as Britton, Fleta, Hengham, and the rest, are (for the most part) law at this day, or at least *were* so, till the alteration of tenures took place (*r*). And, to conclude, it is from this period, from the exact observation of *Magna Carta*, rather than from its making or renewal in the days of his grandfather and father, that the liberty of Englishmen began again to rear its head, though the weight of the military tenures hung heavy upon it for many ages after.

A better proof cannot be given of the excellence of his constitutions, than that from his time to that of Henry the Eighth there happened very few (and those not very considerable) alterations in the legal *forms* of proceedings. As to matter of substance, the old Gothic powers of electing the principal subordinate magistrates, the sheriffs and conservators of the peace, were taken from the people in

(*q*) Hale, *Hist. C. L.* 162.

(*r*) As to these, see Reeves, *Hist. Eng. Law*, vol. ii. p. 280, &c.

[the reigns of Edward the Second and Edward the Third, and justices of the peace were established instead of such conservators. In the reign also of Edward the Third, the parliament is supposed most probably to have assumed its present form, by a separation of the Commons from the Lords. The statute for defining and ascertaining treasons was one of the first productions of this new-modelled assembly; and the translation of the law proceedings, from French into Latin, was another. Much also was done under the auspices of this magnanimous prince, for establishing our domestic manufactures; by prohibiting the exportation of English wool, and the importation or wear of foreign cloth or furs, and by encouraging cloth-workers from other countries to settle here. Nor was the legislature inattentive to many other branches of commerce, or indeed to commerce in general; for, in particular, it enlarged the credit of the merchant, by introducing the statute staple, whereby he might the more readily pledge his lands for the security of his mercantile debts. And, as personal property now grew, by the extension of trade, to be much more considerable than formerly, care was taken, in case of intestacies, to appoint administrators particularly nominated by the law, to distribute that personal property among the creditors and kindred of the deceased, which before had been usually applied, by the officers of the ordinary, to uses then denominated pious. The statutes also of *præmunire*, for effectually depressing the civil power of the pope, were the work of this and the subsequent reign. And the establishment of a laborious parochial clergy, by the endowment of vicarages out of the overgrown possessions of the monasteries, added lustre to the close of the fourteenth century; though the seeds of the general Reformation, which were thereby first sown in the kingdom, were almost overwhelmed by the spirit of persecution, introduced into the laws of the land by the influence of the regular clergy.

From this time to that of Henry the Seventh, the civil

[wars and disputed titles to the Crown gave no leisure for further juridical improvement,—"*nam silent leges inter* "*arma.*" And yet it is to these very disputes, that we owe the happy loss of all the dominions of the Crown on the continent of France; which turned the minds of our subsequent princes entirely to domestic concerns. Hence likewise sprang the method of barring entails by the fiction of *common recoveries*, invented originally by the clergy to evade the statutes of mortmain, but introduced under Edward the Fourth, for the purpose of unfettering estates, and making them more liable to forfeiture: while, on the other hand, the owners endeavoured to protect them by the universal establishment of *Uses*, another of the clerical inventions.

In the reign of King Henry the Seventh, his ministers, not to say the king himself, were more industrious in hunting out prosecutions upon old and forgotten penal laws, in order to extort money from the subject, than in framing any new beneficial regulations. For the distinguishing character of this reign was, that of amassing treasure in the king's coffers, by every means that could be devised; and almost every alteration in the laws, however salutary or otherwise in their future consequences, had this, and this only, for their great and immediate object. To this end the Court of Star Chamber was new modelled, and armed with powers, the most dangerous and unconstitutional, over the persons and properties of the subject. Informations were allowed to be received, in lieu of indictments at the assizes and sessions of the peace, in order to multiply fines and pecuniary penalties. The Statute of Fines for landed property was craftily and covertly contrived, to facilitate the destruction of entails, and make the owners of real estates more capable to forfeit as well as to alien. The benefit of clergy, which so often intervened to stop attainders and to save the inheritance, was now allowed only once to lay offenders, who only could have inheritances to lose. A writ of *capias* was permitted

[in all actions on the case, and the defendant might in consequence be outlawed ; because, upon such outlawry, his goods became the property of the Crown. In short, there is hardly a statute in this reign, introductive of a new law or modifying an old one, but what either directly or obliquely tended to the emolument of the exchequer.

IV. This brings us to the fourth period of our legal history, viz., the reformation of religion, under Henry the Eighth and his children, which opens an entirely new scene in ecclesiastical matters ; the usurped power of the pope being now for ever routed and destroyed, all his connexions with this island cut off, the Crown restored to its supremacy over spiritual men and causes, and the patronage of bishopries being once more indisputablyvested in the king. And had the spiritual courts been at this time reunited to the civil, we should have seen the old Saxon constitution, with regard to ecclesiastical polity, completely restored.

With regard also to our *civil* policy, the Statute of Wills and the Statute of Uses, both passed in the reign of this prince, made a great alteration as to property, the former by allowing the devise of real estates by will, which before was in general forbidden, the latter by endeavouring to destroy the intricate nicety of *Uses*, though the narrowness and pedantry of the courts of common law prevented this statute from having its full beneficial effect. And thence the courts of equity assumed a jurisdiction, dictated by common justice and common sense, which, however arbitrarily exercised or productive of jealousies in its infancy, at length matured into a system of rational jurisprudence, the principles of which, though they may differ in forms, are now equally adopted by the courts of both law and equity. From the Statute of Uses, and another statute of the same antiquity, which protected estates for years from being destroyed by the reversioner (*s*), a remarkable alteration took place in the mode of conveyancing ; the antient assurance by feoffment and livery upon the

(*s*) 21 Hen. 8 (1529), c. 15, § 2.

[land being thenceforth very seldom practised, since the more easy and more private invention of transferring property by secret conveyances to Uses. And long terms of years were now continually created in mortgages and family settlements, which might be moulded to a thousand useful purposes by the ingenuity of the skilled practitioner.

The further attacks in this reign upon the immunity of estates tail, which reduced them to little more than the conditional fees at the common law before the passing of the statute *De Donis;* the establishment of recognizances in the nature of a statute staple, for facilitating the raising of money upon landed security ; and the introduction of the bankrupt laws, as well for the punishment of the fraudulent, as for the relief of the unfortunate, trader,—all these were capital alterations of our legal policy, and highly convenient to that character, which the English began now to assume, of a great commercial people. The incorporation of Wales with England, and the more uniform administration of justice, by destroying some counties palatine, and abridging the unreasonable privileges of such as remained, added dignity and strength to the monarchy ; and, together with the numerous improvements before observed upon, and the redress of many grievances and oppressions which had been introduced by his father, will ever make the administration of Henry the Eighth a very distinguished era in the annals of juridical history.

It must, however, be remarked, that, particularly in his later years, the royal prerogative was strained to a very tyrannical and oppressive height ; and, what was the worst circumstance, its encroachments were established by law, under the sanction of those pusillanimous parliaments, one of which, to its eternal disgrace, passed a statute, whereby it was enacted that the king's proclamations should have the force of Acts of Parliament, and others concurred in the creation of that amazing heap of wild and newfangled treasons, which were slightly

[touched upon in a former place. Happily for the nation, this arbitrary reign was succeeded by the minority of an amiable prince, during which great part of these extravagant laws were repealed; and to do justice to the shorter reign of Queen Mary, many salutary and popular laws, in civil matters, were made under her administration, perhaps the better to reconcile the people to the bloody measures which she was induced to pursue for the re-establishment of religious slavery, the well-concerted schemes for effecting which were, through the providence of God, defeated by the seasonable accession of Queen Elizabeth.

The religious liberties of the nation being, by that happy event, established on an eternal basis, though obliged in their infancy to be guided, against papists and other non-conformists, by laws of too sanguinary a nature, the forest laws having fallen into disuse, and the administration of civil rights in the courts of justice being carried on in a regular course, according to the institutions of King Edward the First, without any material innovations,—all the principal grievances introduced by the Norman Conquest seem to have been gradually shaken off, and our Saxon constitution restored, with considerable improvements, except only in the continuation of the military tenures, and a few other points, which still armed the Crown with a very oppressive and dangerous prerogative. It is also to be remarked, that the spirit of enriching the clergy and endowing religious houses had (through the former abuse of it) gone over to such a contrary extreme, and the princes of the house of Tudor and their favourites had fallen with such avidity upon the spoils of the church, that a decent and honourable maintenance was wanting to many of the bishops and clergy. This produced the *restraining* statutes, to prevent the alienation of lands and tithes belonging to the church and universities. The number of indigent persons being also greatly increased, by withdrawing the alms of the

[monasteries, a plan was formed in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, more humane and beneficial than even the feeding and clothing of millions, by affording such poor the means, with proper industry, to feed and to clothe themselves. And the further any subsequent plans for maintaining the poor have departed from this institution, the more impracticable and even pernicious their visionary attempts have proved.

However, considering the reign of Queen Elizabeth in a great and political view, there is no reason to regret many subsequent alterations in the English constitution. For, though in general she was a wise and excellent princess, and loved her people: though in her time trade flourished, riches increased, the laws were duly administered, the nation was respected abroad, and the people happy at home; yet the increase of the power of the Star Chamber, and the erection of the High Commission Court in matters ecclesiastical, were the work of her reign. She also kept her parliaments at a very awful distance; and in many particulars, she, at times, would carry the prerogative as high as her most arbitrary predecessors. It is true, she very seldom exerted this prerogative so as to oppress individuals, but still she had it to exert; and therefore the felicity of her reign depended more on her want of opportunity and inclination, than on her want of power, to play the tyrant. This is a high encomium on her merit; but at the same time it is sufficient to show that these were not golden days of genuine liberty, as some have taught. For surely the true liberty of the subject consists not so much in the gracious behaviour, as in the limited power, of the sovereign.

The great revolutions that had happened in manners and in property, had paved the way (by imperceptible yet sure degrees) for as great a revolution in government: yet, while that revolution was effecting, the Crown became more arbitrary than ever, by the progress of those very means which afterwards reduced its power.

[It is obvious to every observer, that, till the close of the Lancastrian civil wars, the property and the power of the nation was chiefly divided between the king, the nobility, and the clergy. The commons were generally in a state of great ignorance ; their personal wealth, before the extension of trade, was comparatively small ; and the nature of their landed property was such as kept them in continual dependence upon their feudal lord, being usually some powerful baron, some opulent abbey, or sometimes the king himself. Though a notion of general liberty had strongly pervaded and animated the whole constitution, yet the particular liberty, the natural equality, and the personal independence of individuals, were little regarded or thought of ; nay, even to assert them was treated as the height of sedition and rebellion. Our ancestors heard, with detestation and horror, those sentiments rudely delivered, and pushed to most absurd extremes, by the violence of a Cade and a Tyler, which were afterwards applauded, with a zeal almost rising to idolatry, when softened and recommended by the eloquence, the moderation, and the arguments of a Sidney, a Locke, and a Milton. But when learning, by the invention of printing and the progress of religious reformation, began to be universally disseminated ; when trade and navigation were suddenly carried to an amazing extent, by the use of the compass and the consequent discovery of the Indies,—the minds of men, thus enlightened by science and enlarged by observation and travel, began to entertain a more just opinion of the dignity and rights of mankind. An inundation of wealth flowed in upon the merchants and middling rank ; while the two great estates of the kingdom, which formerly had balanced the prerogative (the nobility and clergy), were greatly impoverished and weakened. The popish clergy, detected in their frauds and abuses, exposed to the resentment of the populace, and stripped of their lands and revenues, stood trembling for their very existence. The nobles,

enervated by the refinements of luxury (which knowledge, foreign travel, and the progress of the politer arts are too apt to introduce with themselves), and fired with disdain at being rivalled in magnificence by the opulent citizens, fell into enormous expenses ; to gratify which they were permitted, by the policy of the times, to dissipate their overgrown estates, and to alienate their antient patrimonies. This gradually reduced their power and their influence within a very moderate bound ; while the king, by the spoil of the monasteries and the great increase of the Customs, grew rich, independent, and haughty, and the commons were not yet sensible of the strength they had acquired, nor urged to examine its extent by new burdens or oppressive taxation, during the sudden opulence of the exchequer. Intent upon acquiring new riches, and happy in being freed from the insolence and tyranny of the orders more immediately above them, they never dreamed of opposing the prerogative, to which they had been so little accustomed, much less of taking the lead in opposition, to which by their weight and their property they were now entitled. The latter years of Henry the Eighth were, therefore, the times of the greatest despotism that have been known in this island since the death of William the Norman, the prerogative (as it then stood by common law, and much more as it was extended by Act of Parliament) being too large to be endured in a land of liberty.

Queen Elizabeth, and the intermediate princes of the Tudor line, had almost the same legal powers, and sometimes exerted them as roughly, as their father King Henry the Eighth. But the critical situation of that princess with regard to her legitimacy, her religion, her enmity with Spain, and her jealousy of the Queen of Scots, occasioned greater caution in her conduct. She, probably, or her able advisers, had penetration enough to discern how the power of the kingdom had gradually shifted its channel, and wisdom enough not to provoke the commons

[to discover and feel their strength. She therefore drew a veil over the odious part of the prerogative, which was never wantonly thrown aside, but only to answer some important purpose; and, though the royal treasury no longer overflowed with the wealth of the clergy, which had been all granted out, and had contributed to enrich the people, she asked for supplies with such moderation, and managed them with so much economy, that the commons were happy in obliging her. Such, in short, were her circumstances, her necessities, her wisdom, and her good disposition, that never did a prince so long and so entirely, for the space of half a century together, reign in the affections of the people.

On the accession of King James the First, no new degree of royal power was added to, or exercised by, him; but such a sceptre was too weighty to be wielded by such a hand. The unreasonable and imprudent exertion of what was then deemed to be prerogative, upon trivial and unworthy occasions, and the claim of a more absolute power inherent in the kingly office than had ever been carried into practice, soon awakened the sleeping lion. The people heard with astonishment doctrines preached from the throne and the pulpit, subversive of liberty and property, and all the natural rights of humanity. They examined into the divinity of this claim, and found it weakly and fallaciously supported; and common reason assured them, that if it were of human origin, no constitution could establish it without power of revocation, no precedent could sanctify, no length of time could confirm it. The leaders felt the pulse of the nation, and found they had ability, as well as inclination, to resist it; and accordingly resisted and opposed it, whenever the pusillanimous temper of the reigning monarch had courage to put it to the trial; and they gained some little victories in the cases of concealments, monopolies, and the dispensing power. In the meantime, very little was done for the improvement of private justice, except the abolition

[of sanctuaries, and the extension of the bankrupt laws, the limitation of suits and actions, and the regulating of informations upon penal statutes. For we cannot class the laws against witchcraft and conjuration under the head of improvements ; nor did the dispute between Lord Ellesmere and Sir Edward Coke, concerning the powers of the Court of Chancery, tend much to the advancement of justice.

Again, when Charles the First succeeded to the crown of his father, and attempted to revive some enormities which had been dormant in the reign of King James, the loans and benevolences extorted from the subject, the arbitrary imprisonments for refusal, the exertion of martial law in time of peace, and other domestic grievances, clouded the morning of that misguided prince's reign ; which, though the noon of it began a little to brighten, at last went down in blood, and left the whole kingdom in darkness. It must be acknowledged, that, by the Petition of Right, enacted to abolish these encroachments, the English constitution received great alteration and improvement. But there still remained the latent power of the forest laws, which the Crown most unseasonably revived. The legal jurisdiction of the Star Chamber and High Commission Courts was also extremely great ; though their usurped authority was still greater. And, if we add to these the disuse of parliaments, the ill-timed zeal and despotic proceedings of the ecclesiastical governors, in matters of mere indifference, together with the arbitrary levies of tonnage and poundage, ship-money, and other projects, we may see grounds most amply sufficient for seeking redress in a legal constitutional way. This redress, when sought, was also constitutionally given ; for all these oppressions were actually abolished by the king in parliament, before the rebellion broke out,—by the several statutes for triennial parliaments, for abolishing the Star Chamber and High Commission Courts, for ascertaining the extent of forests and forest laws, for renouncing

[ship-money and other exactions, and for giving up the prerogative of knighting the king's tenants *in capite* in consequence of their feudal tenures,—though it must be acknowledged, that these concessions were not made with so good a grace as to conciliate the confidence of the people. Unfortunately, either by his own mismanagement or by the arts of his enemies, the king had lost the reputation of sincerity, which is the greatest unhappiness that can befall a prince. Though he formerly had strained his prerogative not only beyond what the genius of the present times would bear, but also beyond the examples of former ages, he now consented to reduce it to a lower ebb than was consistent with monarchical government; and a conduct so opposite to his temper and principles, joined with some rash actions and unguarded expressions, made the people suspect that his condescension was merely temporary. Flushed, therefore, with the success they had gained, fired with resentment for past oppressions, and dreading the consequences if the king should regain his power, the popular leaders (who in all ages have called themselves *the people*) began to grow insolent and ungovernable; their insolence soon rendered them desperate; and despair at length forced them to join with a set of military enthusiasts, who overturned the Church and the monarchy, and proceeded (with deliberate solemnity) to the trial and murder of their sovereign.

We pass by the crude and abortive schemes for amending the laws, in the times of confusion which followed, the most promising and sensible whereof, such as the establishment of new trials, the abolition of feudal tenures, the Act of Navigation, and some others, were adopted in the—

V. Fifth period, which commenced with the restoration of King Charles the Second. Immediately upon which, the principal remaining grievances, the doctrines and consequences of military tenures, were taken away and

[abolished, except in the instance of corruption of inheritable blood, upon attainder of treason and felony. And though the monarch in whose person the royal government was restored, and with it our antient constitution, deserves no commendation from posterity, yet in his reign, (wicked, sanguinary, and turbulent as it was,) the concurrence of happy circumstances was such, that from thence we may date not only the re-establishment of our Church and monarchy, but also the complete restitution of English liberty, for the first time since its total abolition at the Conquest. For therein not only these slavish tenures (the badge of foreign dominion), with all their oppressive appendages, were removed from incumbering the estates of the subject, but also an additional security of his person from imprisonment was obtained, by that great bulwark of our constitution, the *Habeas Corpus* Act. These two statutes, with regard to our property and persons, form a second *Magna Carta*, as beneficial and effectual as that of Running-Mead. That only pruned the luxuriances of the feudal system, but the statutes of Charles the Second extirpated all its slaveries; *Magna Carta* only, in general terms, declared, that no man shall be imprisoned contrary to law, the *Habeas Corpus* Act points him out effectual means, as well to release himself (though committed even by the king in council), as to punish all those who shall thus unconstitutionally misuse him.

To this may be added the abolition of the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption; the statute for holding triennial parliaments; the abolition of the writ *de hæretico comburendo;* the Statute of Frauds and Perjuries, a great and necessary security to private property; the statute for distribution of intestates' estates; and that of amendments and *jeofails*, which cut off many of those superfluous niceties which so long had disgraced our courts; together with many wholesome Acts that were passed in this reign, for the benefit of navigation and the improvement of foreign

[commerce : and the whole, when we likewise consider the freedom from taxes and armies which the subject then enjoyed, will be sufficient to demonstrate this truth, "that "the constitution of England had arrived to its full "vigour, and the true balance between liberty and pre- "rogative was happily established by *law*, in the reign of "Charles the Second" (*t*).

It is by no means intended to palliate or defend many very iniquitous proceedings, *contrary to all law*, in that reign, through the artifice of wicked politicians both in and out of employment. What seems incontestable is this, that *by the law*, as it then stood, notwithstanding some invidious, nay, dangerous, branches of the prerogative were afterwards lopped off, and the rest more clearly defined, the people had a larger portion of real liberty than they had enjoyed in this country since the Norman Conquest ; and sufficient power residing in their own hands to assert and preserve that liberty, if invaded by the royal prerogative : for which we need but appeal to the memorable catastrophe of the next reign. For when King Charles's deluded brother attempted to enslave the nation, he found it was beyond his power : the people both could and did resist him ; and, in consequence of such resistance, obliged him to quit his enterprise and his throne together. And this introduces us to the last period of our legal history, viz.—

VI. From the Revolution in 1688, to the present time. And in the first place, we will refer to the many important measures which became law about the period of that

(*t*) Blackstone (vol. iv. p. 438) adds to the measures of the time of Car. II. of which he approves, the Test and Corporation Acts, "which secure both our civil and "religious liberties" ; and he subjoins the following note,—"The "point of time at which I would "choose to fix this *theoretical* per- "fection of our public law, is the "year 1679, after the Habeas "Corpus Act was passed, and that "for licensing the press had ex- "pired ; though the years which "immediately followed it were "times of great *practical* oppres- "sion."

[event ; as the Bill of Rights, the Toleration Act, the Act of Settlement with its conditions, the Act for uniting England with Scotland, and some others. These statutes asserted our liberties in more clear and emphatical terms ; regulated the succession of the Crown by Parliament, as the exigencies of religious and civil freedom required ; confirmed and exemplified the doctrine of resistance, when the executive magistrate endeavours to subvert the constitution ; maintained the superiority of the laws above the king, by pronouncing his dispensing power to be illegal ; indulged tender consciences in several points relating to religion ; established triennial (since turned into septennial) elections of members to serve in parliament ; excluded certain officers from the house of commons ; restrained the king's pardon from obstructing parliamentary impeachments ; imparted to all the lords an equal right of trying their fellow peers ; regulated trials for high treason ; set bounds to the civil list ; placed the administration of that revenue in hands that are accountable to parliament ; and made the judges completely independent of the king, his ministers, and his successors. Yet, though these provisions, in appearance and nominally, reduced the strength of the executive power to a much lower ebb than in the preceding period, if, on the other hand, we throw into the opposite scale, (what perhaps the immoderate reduction of the antient prerogative may have rendered in some degree necessary,) the vast acquisition of force arising from the Riot Act, the annual expedient of a standing army, the vast acquisition of personal attachment arising from the magnitude of the national debt, and the manner of levying those yearly millions that are appropriated to pay the interest,—it will be found that the Crown, gradually and imperceptibly, gained almost as much in influence, as it apparently lost in prerogative.

Such being the provisions passed for the assertion of our liberties, the chief alterations of moment in other directions during the earlier part of the period following

[the Revolution, were the solemn recognition of the law of nations with regard to the rights of ambassadors; the cutting off, by a statute for the amendment of the law(*a*), a vast number of excrescences, that in process of time had sprung out of the practical part of it; the protection of corporate rights by the improvements in writs of *mandamus* and in informations in the nature of *quo warranto;* the regulation of trials by jury, and the admitting witnesses for prisoners, upon oath; further restraints upon alienation of lands in mortmain; the annihilation of the terrible judgment of *peine forte et dure;* the extension of the benefit of clergy, by abolishing the pedantic criterion of reading; the counterbalance to this mercy, by the vast increase of capital punishment; new and effectual methods for the speedy recovery of rents; the improvements which were made in ejectments for the trying of titles; the introduction and establishment of paper credit, by indorsements upon bills and notes, which have shown the legal possibility and convenience (so long doubted) of assigning a *chose in action;* the translation of all legal proceedings into the English language; the establishment of the great system of marine jurisprudence, of which the foundations were laid by clearly developing the principles on which policies of insurance are founded, and by happily applying those principles to particular cases; and, lastly, the enlargement of view which introduced into our courts of common law, in some instances where narrower doctrines once prevailed, (particularly in the law of mortgage and of landlord and tenant,) the same principles of redress as were already established in our courts of equity.]

To come nearer our own time, the most conspicuous event in our legislative annals has been the Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland, at the commencement of the last century, a measure recommended by the wisest and most unquestionable policy, to two nations so nearly connected by their geographical position and their common

(*a*) Blackstone probably alludes to the 4 & 5 Anne (1705), c. 3 (or, in Ruffhead, c. 16).

subjection to the same Crown, and so long already united in language, in civil institutions, and in arms. We may also single out, for particular enumeration, the Reform Act of 1832, the first statute by which municipal corporations were regulated, and the Acts further to amend the representation of the people, which were passed in the years 1867 and 1884,—all statutes of transcendent importance, as having been designed to abate the indirect influence immemorially exercised by wealth and power, in our general and local institutions ; while to these we may add the renewed efforts made in recent statutes to secure the purity of our parliamentary and municipal elections, and to extend the area of local self-government.

Of other measures of importance passed in the last century, those relating to the Church may next attract our attention. And here we may notice those by which Protestant dissenters of all denominations, and such persons as profess the Jewish religion, or the faith of the Church of Rome, have been in general relieved from all restraints which before excluded them from free participation with their fellow subjects in political rights, as well as from all forfeitures and penalties in respect of their religious tenets : the Acts for the commutation of tithes, for the reform of the laws relative to pluralities and residence, and for the better application of cathedral revenues ; and those measures which have been devised for the extension of the places of worship belonging to the Established Church, and the general increase of her efficiency as regards the cure of souls.

On the merits of many of these changes, indeed, opinions have been much divided, as will always be the case upon questions connected with politics or religion ; but a more unmixed applause may reasonably be claimed for the abolition of the slave-trade, and of slavery in the colonies, and for the improvements that have been introduced in relation to our social economy, particularly in relation to trade and navigation, to the sanitary condition of the people, to banking, to registration, to lunatic

asylums, to gaols, to the law of marriage, to the all-important subject of the education of the masses of the people, to copyright and patent right, to trade marks and designs, to charitable trusts and benevolent institutions, and to the general relief of the poor.

It is, however, with regard to the rights of property and the administration of justice, that the genius of reform has latterly displayed its chief activity, and where its achievements have been, upon the whole, the most triumphant. It would be impossible, without a tedious minuteness of detail, to do more than glance at these. But under the first head, our notice is particularly due to the improvements which have taken place in the law of inheritance, of prescription, of dower, and of the limitation of actions; to the better regulation of wills and testaments; to the deliverance of entails and the estates of married women from the thraldom of expensive and cumbrous forms of conveyance, and the substitution of better methods; to the introduction of greater simplicity and uniformity in several other particulars, and greater freedom of disposition, into that part of our legal system which relates to the alienation of land; and to the provisions for facilitating the conversion of copyhold estates into freehold, and thus emancipating them from the burthens of an oppressive tenure.

Under the reforms in the administration of civil justice may be particularized the better regulation of juries; the abolition of the antiquated forms of real actions, which had survived the lapse of ages only to subserve the purposes of chicanery; fresh improvements in the proceedings by way of the prerogative writs of prohibition, and mandamus; the many important and elaborate alterations which have been introduced in the forms of process and pleading; the reformation of the law of evidence; the establishment of county courts throughout the kingdom, for the decision of civil cases up to a certain amount, so as to dispense justice cheaply and speedily at the doors of the people; the transfer of matters matrimonial, and the

jurisdiction over wills and intestacies, from the feeble and dilatory rule of the ecclesiastical courts, to a more vigorous secular jurisdiction; the creation of a more satisfactory tribunal than before existed, for administering the laws regulating public worship in our churches; and the improvements which have been made in the appellate jurisdiction of the House of Lords and of the Privy Council.

With respect to the improvements of the criminal law, we may notice the consolidation of the law relating to most of the principal offences; the abolition of the benefit of clergy, and of prosecution by appeals; the better regulation of the law of principal and accessory, and of commitment and bail; the introduction of a variety of provisions tending to simplify the course of criminal procedure, and to deliver it from technical difficulties; the allowance of counsel, in all cases, to address the jury for the prisoner; the opportunity now given to prisoners (and to their wives and husbands) to give evidence; the remarkable mitigation which has generally taken place in the antient severity of our punishments; the establishment of a tribunal for the decision of such points of law as shall arise in the course of the trial and be reserved by the judge; and the withdrawal from the eye of the general public of the execution of criminals who have been sentenced to death for murder.

Finally, we may here refer to the attempt which has been made to remove such obstacles as still remain to the speedy and effectual administration of justice, by the establishment of a Supreme Court of Judicature, uniting and consolidating in itself the former superior courts, and forming a grand tribunal both of original and appellate jurisdiction, in one or other department whereof redress may be sought for all injuries, whether civil or criminal, in accordance with the rules of law as modified by the principles of equity.

Of the amount of success which has attended this effort

it is perhaps as yet too early to pronounce a confident opinion; but many abuses which previously deformed our judicial proceedings have doubtless been removed by the new system, the advantages of which, as a whole, may be expected to develope themselves more clearly, when the difficulties inseparable from so considerable a change shall have gradually subsided, and a settled practice in the several divisions of the High Court of Justice become gradually established on a firm basis.

[Thus, therefore, for the delectation and instruction of the reader, have been delineated some rude outlines of a plan for the history of our laws and liberties, from their first rise and gradual progress among our British and Saxon ancestors, till their total eclipse at the Norman Conquest, from which they have gradually emerged and risen to the perfection they now enjoy, at different periods of time. It has been shown that the rules of law which regard the *rights* of each member of the community, whether considered in an *individual*, a *relative*, or a *social* capacity, the *private injuries* which may be committed in violation of these rights, and the wrongs which affect the public (or *crimes*), have been and are every day improving, and are now fraught with the accumulated wisdom of ages; that the forms of administering justice have also, (particularly in our own times,) received the assiduous care of the cultivators of legal science; and that our religious, civil, and political liberties, so long depressed in popish and arbitrary times, and occasionally threatened with absolute extinction, have since, in a constant course of progressive development, commencing at the happy era of the Revolution, been effectually vindicated and established. Of a constitution so wisely contrived, so strongly raised, and so highly finished, it is hard to speak with that praise which is justly and severely its due; the thorough and attentive contemplation of it will furnish its best panegyric.]

END OF THE WORK.

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